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THE GREEK ELECTION.

IT has often been observed that the importance of events of the greatest magnitude is seldom appreciated by contemporary bystanders, and probably the consequences of things now being transacted under our eyes will assume larger proportions in the eyes of our posterity than they occupy in our own estimation. Contemporary history published in serial parts is not near so impressive as a complete three volume romance. When the *dénouement* of the plot is known, the true importance of the preliminary events is better understood. We do not venture to indulge in gifts of prophecy on the current Greek Revolution. Sentimental and enthusiastic politics are an amusing rather than a profitable pursuit. In the days when Mr. Canning announced that the balance of the Old World was to be redressed by the new make-weight of South American democracy, many people thought it was not only a fine phrase, but also the sort of thing which passes for "an eternal truth." But a good many eternal truths have come into the world—especially the world of politics—which have come to a very early end. It is odd enough that, whilst all the South American republics, for which our fathers flung their caps into the air, have fallen into decadence and contempt, the Brazilian empire, which was a sort of slip transplanted into the tropics from the nursery of European monarchy, has proved a silent and permanent success.

Without allowing ourselves, however, to indulge in over-sanguine speculation, it is impossible that England should not interest herself in an event at once so strange, and so flattering to this nation as the election of Prince Alfred by the Greek people. We cannot help asking, what does it mean? France, with her profound belief in generous ideas and noble sympathies, exclaims at once, "Oh! they only want the Ionian Islands." We should like to know what France would have said if the Greeks had happened to elect a French candidate. Should we not have heard from every voice of the press, official, semi-official, and unofficial, how the nations of the earth rallied to *la grande nation*, and attached themselves to the car of the leader of civilization? If we do not brag quite in such a high-flown style, it is because boasting is not the national habit with us to the same degree as it is with our neighbours across the Channel. Nevertheless, in a quiet way, we can enjoy an internal chuckle at a popularity which has all the zest of a surprise. After all, peace, liberty, commerce, good government, and respectability, are qualities which have value quite as much as despotism draped out in swagger; and the Greeks, who, with all their faults, are a remarkably sharp people, have not failed to discern what they think will best conduce to their own interest.

There is something striking and almost imposing about the simplicity and determination with which the Greeks have set to work to carry out the object on which they have so unexpectedly set their affections. They are like the woman in the parable, and their faith

is such as should enable them to remove mountains of obstacles out of their way. They have been informed, with as much explicitness as is permissible in declining an offer not already made, that England cannot bestow upon them Prince Alfred. Continental writers are pleased to impute to the English Government a deep-laid scheme of intrigue, in which they are supposed to have put up one horse by which they did not intend to win, but only to cut out the running for the animal intended to supplant the Russian favourite. We believe that this profound and Machiavellian plot is a pure creation of the brain of foreign journalists. As England did not originate, and has never encouraged, the election of Prince Alfred, it is superfluous to inquire what were her motives in doing what she has never done. The fact is that newspaper writers, especially abroad, are never satisfied unless they are either denouncing or extolling some wonderful *système*. According to their ideas, politics are carried on much after the fashion of the plot of the well-known "Woman in White." Lord Palmerston, as he rides to cover in the New Forest, or Lord Russell, as he saunters about the grass-plot at Pembroke Lodge, is for ever hatching some desperate scheme of unfathomable policy. The truth is, that the action of the Foreign Office as little resembles in reality the ideal of these ingenious gentlemen as the proceedings in Sir Percival Glynde's establishment represent the normal state of society in English country-houses. We don't know any politician who habitually acts in public life on the model of the Frenchman's "perfidious Englishman," except, perhaps, Mr. Disraeli. The member for Bucks, like his own "Vivian Grey," endeavours to elaborate a *passant* intrigue out of the orders of the day. But what probably no Frenchman will be capable of understanding, is, nevertheless, true? that it is just on account of this peculiarly un-English habit that Mr. Disraeli fails as a party leader in the House of Commons. We don't know but what politicians and diplomatists may be disinclined to discourage an idea which enhances their importance at the expense of their character. It is nevertheless true, what a distinguished statesman once confided to a friend in a moment of excessive candour: "Nous sommes beaucoup plus honnêtes et beaucoup moins habiles que vous ne croyez."

Nevertheless, with a perfect certainty that the proffers of the crown would be declined, the Greeks have refused all denial. As soon as diplomatists began to talk of treaties, they took the affair, as they supposed, out of the hand of Government. They have opposed the modern panacea of universal suffrage to the worn out system of protocols. What was sauce for the goose, they thought naturally enough, was sauce for the gander, and the treatment which had regenerated Italy they not unreasonably considered might benefit Greece. "It is sport to see the engineer hoist with his own petard," and few sights have been more amusing than the trepidation and tribulation of French politicians at this unexpected application of their favourite nostrum. Universal suffrage is a very good thing, they say, when it is discreetly administered, which, in plainer

language, means, when M. Persigny has the manipulation of the ballot boxes. Whilst we admit the cogency of the reasons which have decided the Government not to involve English interests in the fortunes of the Greek nation, we must say we sympathize with their aspirations, and regret their disappointment. To tell the plain truth, Greece has not, from the first, had very fair play from Europe. She was originally called into existence as a convenience, and she has since been treated as a stopgap. She has been the puppet and the shuttlecock of European rivalries. In the days of her minority, she was made a ward of the European Chancery, and the Court gave her an imbecile and mischievous guardian. No wonder she does not, in her riper years, wish again to be made the plaything of protocols, from which she has hitherto reaped so little advantage. Heine says, that every woman writes with one eye on her book and the other fixed on some man. The Powers of Europe in reference to Greece are much in the same position. They have one eye on Athens, but the other is always turned to Constantinople. And so, in the general game of Puss in the corner, whilst the great States are making themselves safe against one another, poor Puss stands shivering in the midst. We do not wonder that Greece has become impatient of being shoved about from pillar to post, and being treated to a game of "no child of mine." She has made a very creditable and sensible endeavour to emancipate herself from this injurious and degrading tutelage, and we heartily wish her a good king and a good fortune.

A USEFUL RECEIPT FOR WHITEWASH.

HIS Royal Highness the Commander-in-chief has at last come forward to support Colonel Burnaby and Captain Annesley against the Jockey Club and the noblemen and gentlemen who formed the party at Sir Lydston Newman's during the last Exeter Races, and has easily succeeded in "pulling them through." The public has been semi-officially informed that a court of inquiry, composed of four officers of the Brigade of Guards, commissioned by his Royal Highness to investigate the imputations cast on those officers by the Jockey Club, and by the Earl of Portsmouth, Mr. Ten Broeck, and others, has decided that "they have satisfactorily vindicated their honour." Consequently, Colonel Burnaby and Captain Annesley will henceforward be received by their brother officers as cordially as if Tarragona had never started at Newmarket, and as if the "Raindeer" bet had never been made; and industrious young Guardsmen in future will hold themselves safe in travelling about to country-houses in couples with Johnson's dictionaries in their carpet-bags, and in picking up what stray guineas they can by ingenious after-dinner bets on disputed orthographical points. Nothing can be more complete than the acquittal pronounced by the court of inquiry appears to have been; so much so that a man must be far bolder than we can pretend to be who should venture to insinuate that the characters of the two gentlemen which had been so grievously impugned do not now stand as high as do the characters of any of the other officers in their regiment; a conclusion which must be highly gratifying to them after all they have suffered, and is, we hope, equally gratifying to the Brigade of Guards.

Having said thus much, we will take leave to say a few words more on the nature and constitution of the tribunal by which Colonel Burnaby and Captain Annesley have been acquitted; on the means which were placed at its disposal, in order to enable it to arrive at a verdict, and on the respect which the public at large may be expected to show to that verdict. The court of inquiry appointed by the Duke of Cambridge was composed, as we have already said, of four officers of the Brigade of Guards. It had no power to compel the attendance of witnesses, or to examine any who chose to attend upon oath. The parties, if any, who gave evidence before it, might tell the whole truth, or part of the truth, or no part of the truth, just as they pleased, without fear of ulterior consequences or even of exposure and discredit if they adopted the latter alternative, for its proceedings were conducted with strict privacy. What witnesses were examined by it, or on what evidence it has arrived at its verdict, has not been made known; all that is known is, that it had very great difficulty in arriving at the complete acquittal which it has pronounced, and that it was not until two previous verdicts had been sent in and rejected by the Commander-in-Chief, that the members of the court were induced to submit to his Royal Highness a third, which, fortunately for all parties, proved completely satisfactory to everybody.

It seems to us unfair that the nature of the valuable machinery by which these courts of inquiry operate should remain unknown to the legal world. It is surely ungenerous to keep secret a means of arriving at the truth which appears to be totally independent of the laws of evidence and of right and wrong; which requires no more complicated or costly apparatus than the attendance of four average lieutenant-colonels for a few days in a room at the Horse Guards; which saves the expense of collecting witnesses, of feeing counsel and of paying attorneys, and briefly and simply jumps to a conclusion which is invariably satisfactory to the Commander-in-Chief, if to nobody else. We strongly recommend that the complicated difficulties in

which Sir Hugh Rose appears to be at this moment involved in India should be submitted to a similar tribunal. Four not particularly lucid veterans—the older the better—might easily be selected from the Senior United Service Club, and removed with care to a room at the Horse Guards. They would have no difficulty in ascertaining whether the highest military authority in the realm wished to support Sir Hugh Rose—to let him down easy—or to punish him. There would be no occasion whatever to call home witnesses from India; neither need any power of eliciting the truth from any who chanced to be at home, and to attend the proceedings of the court, be entrusted to its members. Such documents as the Horse Guards might think necessary for the support of their own particular view of Sir Hugh's conduct would, of course, be allowed to the old gentlemen, and as soon as their gout got the better of their patience and they got tired of attending daily at the Horse Guards, of being badgered by its officials and laughed at by the public, they would make their report. If that document proved unsatisfactory, it would be, of course, sent back to them again and again, until it assumed a form perfectly agreeable to official eyes, and then it would be promulgated as a triumphant corroboration of the correct view which the authorities had taken, *ab initio*, of the conduct of the Commander-in-Chief in India. Immense weight would, of course, be claimed for the verdict of the septuagenarians who composed the court, on account of their advanced age. Military men would carefully abstain from making any remarks on it if they wished to stand well with their superiors, and any criticisms which might be hazarded by public writers on the subject, would condescendingly be attributed by the Oily Gammons of the Horse Guards and the War Office, to their deplorable ignorance and utter inexperience of the laws of honour and the art of war.

THE LAST PHASE OF THE YELVERTON CASE.

TO those unacquainted with the procedure of the Scottish courts of law, the present position of the Yelverton case may appear somewhat mysterious. The judges are equally divided, and yet the decision is in favour of the lady. The seeming anomaly has arisen in this way. In Scotland causes are first tried by a single judge, who is called the Lord Ordinary. From him an appeal lies to one or other of two courts exercising a co-ordinate jurisdiction, called respectively the First and Second Division,—each composed of four judges. The decisions of these courts are, in Scotland, final. Now, when the Yelverton case was debated before the First Division, one of the judges of that division had resigned, and his successor had not been appointed. Lord Ardmillan was the successor eventually appointed, and he was precluded from taking part in the final decision, not, as is frequently said, because the case was tried by him at its first stage—for this would not have precluded him by the rules of the Scotch courts—but because he had not heard the debate before that Division. Accordingly, final judgment has been delivered by three judges only. One of these concurs with Lord Ardmillan, two differ from him; and the result of this majority in the higher court is a reversal of the former judgment. This is greatly to be regretted; and the more so that the judge who resigned just before the debate was a man of a singularly acute and subtle mind, whose views of the bearing of the correspondence and evidence in this complicated case would have been of great value. The three remaining judges of the First Division were Lord Curriehill, Lord Deas, and Lord President McNeill.

On the Scotch law of marriage these three judges were agreed. And as considerable misapprehension appears to exist on this matter—a misapprehension not likely to be corrected by the views of Scotch law promulgated in some English journals—it is worth while to investigate the point as to which they were so agreed.

People may be married in Scotland in two (at least) irregular ways. 1. If they interchange a consent to the contract there and then; or, in the legal phrase, by consent *de presenti*; or, 2. if they promise to marry, and subsequently cohabit on the faith of such promise—with the restriction that, in this latter case, the promise must be in writing, or admitted on oath by the party making it. But, in order that marriage may be constituted, all these things must take place in Scotland. The consent in the former case must be interchanged in Scotland; and in the latter case, the promise must be given, and the subsequent cohabitation must take place, in the same country. It is not, therefore, correct to say, as has been said by one writer, that the "Scotch judges were equally divided as to whether a ceremony confessedly void as a marriage in Ireland will, when added to acts of incontinence in Scotland, amount to a legal marriage." In the first place, the Irish ceremony did not come before the Scotch judges as "confessedly void;" on the contrary, though a judgment upon it was not asked from them, the plaintiff or pursuer maintained its validity, and intimated that she was prepared to plead it elsewhere. Nay, further, the fact that she did so maintain its validity was strongly stated by the Lord President to be one of the grounds of his judgment. In the second place, not one of the judges gave the smallest countenance to the view that a promise, or any ceremony whatever, in a foreign country, standing

alone, though followed by cohabitation in Scotland, would make marriage by Scotch law. In the words of the President,—"I think that marriage by promise and subsequent *copula* means that the whole marriage is in Scotland; that the two things which constitute the marriage are both in Scotland." The Lord President and Lord Deas did indeed differ on one somewhat difficult point. Assuming that there had been (1) a promise in Scotland (2), a ceremony in Ireland, and (3) cohabitation in Scotland, Lord Deas expressed the opinion—though with great doubt,—that if the Irish ceremony should prove invalid, the cohabitation would connect itself with the previous promise in Scotland; while the Lord President held that the cohabitation must connect itself for good or evil with the ceremonial which immediately preceded it, and could not, in any view, refer back to the foregoing promise. But it was of the very essence even of this difference that both promise and cohabitation had, at one time or other, taken place in Scotland. It is not a very bitter condemnation to pass on any law, that it is so obscure that judges cannot agree upon it; but even this is not true of the Scotch law of marriage. It may be bad—it may even be immoral; but certainly its obscurity has not been illustrated by the late judgment. In a word, the whole difference of the judges was on the evidence. In the opinion of two of their number that evidence was sufficient to establish such an interchange of consent, and such a promise followed by cohabitation, as we have above mentioned; in the opinion of the other two, it was not so sufficient; and that is the whole story.

That being the whole story, it is very hard to see why popular feeling should have enlisted itself on one side or on the other in this most unhappy business. The result of the searching investigation under the Scotch system has been very different from the one-sidedness of the Irish trial. In Scotland, the case has been thoroughly and fairly sifted, and the result of the whole has been given to us from opposite points of view by Lord Ardmillan and by Lord Deas. And that result most undoubtedly tends, in the judicial language of Lord Curriehill, "to deprive both parties of all sympathy." It is now perfectly plain to those who study this case, that the pursuer and defender have both been guilty of the gravest indecorums, and have both lied in order to conceal them. The "record" so often alluded to in the opinion of the judges, is in Scotch pleadings a statement of the case carefully prepared by counsel from the information furnished by parties. In this case, it now appears that the records on both sides are, in many particulars false. The pursuer has made false statements in order to establish her own social position, and to conceal her own frailty. The defender has made false statements with the equally natural object of disparaging at once the position and the character of the pursuer; and it should be added that, in the opinion, at least, of the Lord President, hired agents of the pursuer appear to have tampered with the evidence; or, in the words of the judge, "to have interfered with the stream of pure evidence reaching this court." When we take this want of truth, thus exposed by the judges, together with the notorious facts of the case, we cannot see in the pursuer the making of a very exalted heroine. We are, therefore, surprised at the strong leaning of the audience; and we must add that we are also surprised at the enthusiasm of a judge. The judgment of Lord Curriehill, affirming the marriage, is calm and judicial. We cannot say the same for that of Lord Deas. An insane love of fine writing on the most inappropriate occasions, seems a malady incident to the Scottish mind. But surely, if anywhere, this should be restrained on the Bench. Sensation judgments are worse than sensation dramas or sensation novels. Surely it does not become a judge to give his opinion in such a style as to excite, during its delivery, and at its close, "loud and general applause." Readers of Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton need not the teaching of learned lawyers, to feel the full beauty and value of such sentiments, as that "it is in the nature of woman's love to excuse much in the object of it;" that "a desire for love and sympathy is the genuine feeling of every genuine female heart;" and that "the scowl of suspicion is a dagger to the heart of every pure-minded woman." Almost purely Byronic is the sentiment that "the partiality which in the mind of a lady becomes the hope of her life, is, to a man of the world, but one of the many things which occupy his attention;" and we are quite certain that neither Sir Bulwer Lytton nor Lord Byron have ever surpassed the following: "It may seem paradoxical, but it is nevertheless true, that the less young persons of a romantic and imaginative mind know of each other, so much the more ardent, though not the more enduring, sometimes, is the attachment they form. A passion engrafted upon slight acquaintance, particularly in a susceptible female mind, may grow, by distance of place and long separation, more rapidly and engrossingly than it could have done by habitual personal intimacy. Imagination fills up the imperfect picture, and attributes to the favoured object all the graces and virtues which are too apt to be found deficient when the reality comes to be known." And the force of this passage, as part of a legal argument and the basis of an important judgment, becomes peculiarly apparent when we remember that the "young persons" to whom his Lordship alludes had attained the mature age of twenty-seven years when they became the subject of the psychological

phenomena here so eloquently described. In plain English, all this is very sorry trash. Lord Deas tells us, that he felt such an oration to be due to "the parties and to the public." What may be the emotions of the parties we cannot tell; but we are convinced that his lordship has mistaken his duties to the public. The duty of a judge in all cases alike is to express his view of the law clearly and shortly; it never can be his duty to consume the public time in setting forth sentiments borrowed from "Ernest Maltravers," and in rendering Donna Julia's letters to Juan into turgid prose.

To turn from such a rhapsody to the brief but exhaustive judgment of the Lord President, is like passing into the open air from a heated room. The head of the Scottish bench is not only, in the ordinary sense of the words, a great lawyer; he has long been celebrated for the power of estimating, with almost unerring accuracy, the value and bearing of evidence; and bringing this peculiar gift to bear on the present case, his opinion is, that the evidence does not prove a marriage. He indulges in no speculations about woman's love, or woman's nature; he looks solely at the facts, and he refuses to aid the facts by any Byronic analysis of the affections. "It would be very dangerous," he says, "to help the case by inference or conjecture. We are not to conjecture a marriage; we are not to weigh the probabilities of what the parties might do by what they have been doing." We don't profess to be prophets; nor can we aspire to the authority of Dr. Johnson's dictionary. Nevertheless, we would recommend betting men to lay their money on the opinion of the Lord President.

Meanwhile, this much is decided, that the pursuer of the action is entitled to bear the name of Mrs. Yelverton until the case is finally determined by the House of Lords. Various writers commenting on this case have been disturbed by the sudden idea that polygamy may be possible in the British Isles—that a man may have different wives in England, Scotland, and Ireland. A very elementary acquaintance with jurisprudence would have sufficed to dispel this fear or hope. By the comity of nations matrimonial ties binding in one country hold fast in every other. A wife in Scotland, however unpleasant, is a wife in England too. So long as the judgment of the Scotch Courts stands unreversed, the pursuer of this action is entitled to be regarded as the wife of Major Yelverton all over the world.

THE TWO FRENCH EMPIRES.

WHEN, in December, 1848, France, having established a Republican Government on the ruins of the Orleans dynasty, elected Louis Napoleon Bonaparte to be the first Head of the Executive, few of the politicians of Europe, either French or foreign, augured much success or long duration to his rule. He was not widely known, and what was known of him was not promising. He was not considered to be clever; he was currently esteemed to be the reverse; some even spoke of him, and not without plausible grounds, as a crack-brained enthusiast. He had passed many years in exile, not a few in prison. He had written a good deal; what he had written was not very brilliant; and it was thought the reverse of sagacious in him to have committed himself in writing at all. Finally, he was chiefly known to the world at large as the hero of two not very heroic, perhaps, but certainly very wild, attempts to regain the throne of his uncle—the ludicrous *attentat* of Strasbourg, and the grotesque descent upon Boulogne. Naturally, therefore, people expected that his presidency would be marked by some strange disturbance of the general peace, and probably by some foolish endeavours to put one or two of his semi-socialistic theories into practice; but no one expected it either to do much good, or to last very long.

Nor did the result greatly disappoint expectation. His tenure of the Chief Magistracy was a period of singular uneasiness and confusion—of anxious and alarmed preparation on all sides for something anticipated, but indefinite and incalculable. In December, 1851, after just three years of restlessness, the *coup d'état* placed him virtually on the Imperial throne, though the Empire was not formally proclaimed till nearly a year after. The adventurer whom all the old politicians had despised, and whose speeches and actions while President had certainly shown no superiority, had outwitted and overpowered them all, and by a most daring and well-combined conspiracy had attained—violently and unscrupulously, no doubt, but very completely—the summit of his ambition. Even then, however, scarcely any one believed in him or gave him credit for any ability to rule. Those who were in Paris shortly before and shortly after, must remember that the language in all intellectual and political circles was, "Ah! ça ne durera pas trois mois." Every one will recollect this habitual expression of the prevailing sentiment. "On ne peut prendre ça au sérieux," it was said. Numbers looked for a European war; numbers for an internal revolution; scarcely any for a prolonged reign, which should bring to France much glory and singular material prosperity, as glory and prosperity are understood by the devotees of brute power.

Now the point to which we wish to call attention, and which has

been little noticed, is that this reign, in the duration of which so few believed, has already lasted as long as that of his illustrious uncle. The second Napoleon, whom most people thought foolish, has reigned as long as the first Napoleon whom everybody admitted to be great. The first Napoleon was First Consul and Consul for life for *four* years—from the winter of 1800 (Dec., 1799), till the spring of 1804. He was Emperor just *ten* years—from May, 1804, till April, 1814. In all, he held the reins of government in France for fourteen years, when he was compelled to abdicate by foreign force and domestic disaffection. His nephew has held power for precisely the same period, and is to all appearance as firmly seated on his throne as ever. He was President for *four* years—from 1848 to 1852. He has been Emperor for *ten* years, from 1852 to 1862. Few of us can realise this comparison. Napoleon I. not only filled the whole world with his name, revolutionized the art of war, defeated every continental nation, altered the whole face of Europe, and made unequal strides to universal empire. He was the greatest captain of modern times—perhaps of any time. He stands out as one of the most prominent characters in history. While he lived, few thought or spoke of any one else. He filled every mind and stirred every imagination. He was more worshipped, more dreaded, and more hated than any public man we could name. We have none of this feeling with regard to his successor. No one calls *him* great. Yet, in several respects, the nephew has done more and done better than the uncle. What is the explanation of this?

In one or two points Napoleon III. had more difficult cards to play than Napoleon I., and has played them with incomparably greater skill. Both came up after a period of revolution and confusion, when the general mind was willing to pay almost any price for security and order. Both succeeded to governments so feeble and inadequate, that every one was clamorous for "a strong hand." But General Bonaparte was already known as a successful soldier; he was adored by his troops; he was admittedly the first man in the nation before he was called to the head of affairs. Every one was willing to obey him. The way was paved for him by his prestige. Louis Napoleon, on the contrary, had never appeared before the world except disadvantageously; he was believed to be weak, and was known to have been foolish; his name and position, as the eldest representative of the great Emperor's family, was literally the only thing in his favour. He was popular with the great uneducated mass of the nation as a Bonaparte; but with every one else, with those immediately around him, and with the rest of Europe, he had to make his way against adverse prepossessions. He had to display force of character and sagacity of intellect to Ministers and spectators who gave him credit for neither. His uncle had been the idol of the army. He had to attach an army notoriously inclined to his rivals—the Orleans Princes. Napoleon I., though he relied much on himself, and chose to be the centre and the soul of everything, was yet able to summon to his aid all the best intellects of the nation, and to assign them each their special function. In the early part of his career he was admirably served. Talleyrand, Fouché, Miot, Baron Louis, and others, not only carried out all his wise plans with great zeal and ability, but constantly saved him from the consequences of his foolish ones. Napoleon III., on the contrary, has had almost no assistance. He has had not only to do everything himself—almost as much as Frederick the Great did—but he has had to extricate himself from all the scrapes into which he was brought by the blunders and incompetency of his Ministers, as well as by his own. For a long time the intellect of the nation was at the back of the first Emperor; it has always been the bitter and vigilant foe of the second.

Considering, then, the facilities of the one man and the difficulties of the other, what has each done? In the course of ten years the first Napoleon contrived, after making France almost omnipotent, to leave her shorn of all her conquests, occupied by and at the mercy of the armies of exasperated Europe; after seizing every capital on the Continent, to see his own Paris twice occupied by the Sovereigns whom he had humbled; France, after rifling the treasures of every other country, was forced to restore them all and pay a large indemnity into the bargain. He decimated the population of France by his incessant wars, and drained away her wealth with merciless profusion, leaving her humbled, impoverished, depopulated, and abhorred. He did much, but he left little. His coinage, his bureaucracy, his code, and his Alpine roads, alone survive him. In the course of ten years, the present Emperor has re-organized the army and re-armed it on a far more efficient footing than before, till he is now as popular with it as any one who is not a brilliant military genius can be. He has entirely reconstructed the navy, till it has become one of the most formidable in the world, and in size and efficiency second only to our own. He has doubled the trade of France; he has quadrupled her railways; he has greatly increased her ordinary revenue, and assuredly her wealth also, in a like proportion; and if he has enormously added to her national debt, he has done it in such a way as to afford an easy and lucrative investment for the savings of the mass, so that the debt is about the most popular of his creations. He has metamorphosed the face of most of the cities of France, and augmented their splendour and magnificence enormously; and though the price of all the necessities of life

has been enhanced, the working people are better off than ever, and have seldom, if ever, been so well paid or so constantly employed. To crown the whole, he has waged two successful wars with the two chief monarchies on the Continent, and has given Frenchmen three more bloody victories to boast of; and, after a reign of ten years, he cannot be said to have sustained one serious reverse.

The truth is that, notwithstanding all his crimes, all his selfishness, all his vices, all his hypocrisy, and all his oppressions, he is in some things a decidedly superior man to his uncle. With incomparably less genius, he has incomparably more knowledge and more prudence. His studies at Ham and his residence in England were neither of them lost upon him. He understands political economy—of which the first Napoleon knew no more than Mr. Ruskin or Sir Archibald Alison. He understands the French nation as well as his uncle, and other nations much better. More than all, he has the command of his passions—which the great Emperor had not. He can calculate probabilities far better. He knows when to pause and when to draw back. *He can wait.* He has learned that moderation is essential to success. He never blinds himself. He will never encounter *desperate* risks, unless forced upon him. He is satisfied with slow and substantial victories; and, finally, he is much less of a *parvenu* than his uncle, who, with all his wonderful genius and powers of fascination, was vulgar to the very core of his nature, and not a bit of a gentleman. In virtue of all these qualities it is that the second Empire has already lasted longer than the first, and may possibly even survive its founder.

INSURANCE COMPANIES.

INSURANCE Companies have lately had the misfortune to occupy a very undue portion of the time of the Courts of Law. The most cursory glance at the law reports in the columns of the *Times* is sufficient to show how large a space has been filled by these Societies in the ranks of litigants. Putting aside the great sensation trial which has recently given the curious public a peep into the spacious but gloomy Parliament Chamber of the Middle Temple, the most prominent feature of the sittings which have just ended is the litigation connected with Insurance Companies. Their favours have been impartially divided between the Courts of Law and Equity. Westminster Hall and Lincoln's Inn have been equally crowded with these candidates for justice. In the Queen's Bench a single case occupied the greater part of a week, and, like a broken-down carriage in a procession, put a complete stop to the progress of business. But there was nothing novel in any of the cases at common law, except their excessive length and weariness. The questions in dispute were the old points that have been the origin of law-suits since Insurance Societies were established. As might have been expected, they all arose out of disputes with respect to the payment of policies, and the contest always lay between the company and an individual policy-holder or his representatives. But these were not the only or the most important questions which were litigated during the last term by these Societies. The practice of amalgamating, which has lately been so prevalent, has at length become the subject of very extensive litigation. Some of these proposed arrangements were made in such utter disregard of the rights of the policy-holders as a body that it became necessary for them to take steps in self-defence. The whole of this litigation has taken place in the Chancery Courts. For reasons which no layman is expected to understand, there are certain branches of business which courts of common law do not consider themselves competent to undertake. It is enough for the unlearned public to know that, from an old constitutional weakness in these courts inherited from ancient times, they are wholly unable to take any steps to prevent the doing of a mischief, however irreparable it may be. After the thing is done, they are quite ready to give their assistance, but not a minute before. For all preventive measures recourse must be had to the Court of Chancery. And it so happened that the very beneficial powers of that Court have, during the last month, been frequently invoked with the view of restraining Insurance Companies from proceeding with certain proposed plans of amalgamation. On more than one occasion the Court of Vice-Chancellor Wood has been filled with an eager crowd of policy-holders seeking to prevent these Societies from disposing of funds in a manner injurious to their interests.

Each of these branches of litigation is deserving of notice. It is manifest, from one of the cases that has just been tried in the Queen's Bench, that it is with extreme reluctance that a respectable company ventures on disputing a claim for the payment of a policy. And it is certainly not without reason that they should be thus unwilling to assert their rights in a court of law. A single policy, of which payment is disputed, makes more impression on the public, than a hundred others which are settled quietly. And the position of an Insurance Company is, in this respect, singularly unfortunate, for the reputation of resisting payment is the worst that an office can acquire. Self-defence is the most injurious art which it can practise. So much is this the case that it is sometimes a question with the directors

whether it is not more prudent to submit to an unjust demand, than to expose themselves to the reputation of being ready to lay hold of trifles for the purpose of putting obstacles in the way of claimants. This difficulty has not escaped the notice of the persons interested in the direction of these societies, and a plan has been proposed, with a view of meeting the difficulty, which, we understand, has been received with some favour. It is recommended that a council should be formed, consisting of directors of various companies, to which all disputed cases should be referred. The duty of this council would be to pronounce on behalf of the particular office to which the policy belonged, whether or not it was a proper case for resistance. It is conceived that the odium which at present attaches to any company which resists a claim would be removed, inasmuch as the question of whether it was a proper case for resistance, would be decided by a body unconnected with the particular Company, and having, therefore, no pecuniary interest in the decision. Such a council, it is suggested, would also be useful in defending the rights of a class of persons who are not very well able to take care of themselves. It is admitted that the less respectable offices often resist payment of claims on trifling grounds. And it not unfrequently happens that the persons entitled to payment are wholly dependent for their provision in life on the proceeds of the policy thus disputed, and are consequently ill prepared to defend their rights in a court of law. To avoid the delay and uncertainty which always attend proceedings in law, and to escape from the pressure of immediate necessities, recourse is often had in such cases to compromises, and thus the sufficient provision which a prudent man has made for his family is reduced to a miserable pittance. This is not an imaginary case. Such cases of compromise are more numerous than the public suppose. The establishment of a council of inquiry, such as has been mentioned, would, it is said, operate for the defence of persons who have the misfortune to be insured in unscrupulous companies, and would protect their representatives from unjust litigation.

This scheme has a certain air of plausibility, which recommends it to favour at the first glance; but, on closer examination, there appear to be considerable difficulties in the way of its execution. In the first place, every case of a disputed policy has to be decided on evidence more or less complicated, and often contradictory. The council of directors would clearly not be in a position to give an opinion of any value without having the full materials before them which would be produced at a regular trial. But such a body would not have the power to call witnesses before them. And even supposing all the powers requisite for securing their attendance, the result would merely be the substitution of a new and inferior court of judicature for one already existing, and that without any material diminution of expense. The value of the scheme may be tested by applying it to one of the recent cases, *Fowkes v. The Manchester and London Life Assurance Company*. One of the questions there was whether the deceased had answered truly that he had never been afflicted with gout. Medical witnesses were called on both sides, besides the widow and several friends of the deceased, who were called in support of the plaintiff. After all this evidence, and with all the assistance which the practised skill of the Lord Chief Justice could give, the jury had difficulty enough in coming to a decision on the question. It is manifest that it would be quite idle for any council of directors to give a decision on so doubtful a point without having the materials before them with as much completeness as they were produced at the trial.

But the questions that are now at issue in the proceedings in the Courts of Chancery are of far greater importance than any that are involved in the late trials at common law. The latter relate merely to individual cases; while on the decision of the former depends the position in which the whole body of policy holders in proprietary offices will henceforth stand. If such an arrangement as that proposed by the shareholders of the *Argus* is held to be legal, then the position of policy-holders is, indeed, a precarious one. It is important that the nature of the question at issue should be clearly understood. It is manifest that the position of a society at any time depends on the proportion between its assets and its liabilities. Suppose that a company has so successfully conducted its business for many years, that its accumulated fund is more than sufficient to discharge its liabilities. If such a company fell into the hands of an experienced clique of amalgamators they would offer it for sale to some other company, on the terms that the latter should undertake their liabilities on condition of receiving part of the assets. The rest of the assets would remain for division among the shareholders of the moribund company, after giving compensation to its officers. All this is done without asking the consent of any of the policy-holders, who are thus handed over to another company which may or may not be in a flourishing condition, and in which most possibly the bonuses are not nearly so large as those they would have received in their own company. It is, indeed, manifest that if, as in the case of the "*Argus*," the shareholders may take their company into the market and sell it on the most favourable terms they can get, without once consulting the persons insured, there is nothing in the world to prevent them from disposing of it to a needy and insolvent company

which will be ready to undertake any amount of liabilities in the future, for a small amount of ready money. This will of course leave the shareholders a larger sum to distribute among themselves. The danger attending such a state of the law is too obvious to escape notice. The more prosperous the company has previously been and the larger its accumulated fund, the more profit will the shareholders have in its destruction, if a number of amalgamators can be found bold enough to undertake the task. And the profit will be still further increased by looking out for a needy company to accept the transfer.

THE BATTLE OF THE BENCHERS.

THE celebrated engagement which took place some time ago, at the witching hour of midnight, in the Parliament Chamber of the Middle Temple, between the Benchers on the one hand, and the virtuous and indignant Mr. Hudson upon the other, has terminated in smoke. A British jury, after many days of patience and attention, have been unable to decide between the conflicting parties. Their hesitation is virtually, though not of course legally, a triumph for the Middle Temple. Had it been possible to regard the plaintiff in the light of an innocent and injured gentleman, and the Benchers as a tyrannous and somewhat bloated aristocracy, we may be sure that a Guildhall jury would have given Mr. Hudson the benefit of the doubt. On the other side, though Mr. Hudson has taken little by his suit, the public so far sympathize with the indecision of the jury who tried the cause, that they are not prepared altogether to acquit the Benchers of indiscretion. Still, it seems to be thought that the plaintiff's account is to be considered as tinged with a delicate colouring of romance. The Benchers, as is clear, took no part themselves in the sudden *melee*, except only to direct and inspire the combatants, as the gods of Homer may have inspired their favourite warriors on the plains of Troy. Of all direct personal interference in the fray they stand acquitted. It is now plain that Mr. Bovill did not at any time propose to himself to assist in holding up Mr. Hudson by the heels. Threatened, insulted, and provoked, Sir Frederick Slade, it is at last universally allowed, presented a bright example of meekness under difficulties, and submitted to the indignities offered him by Mr. Hudson without uttering a word for which a bishop would have had to blush. The character of Mr. Anderson shines out as brightly. He sat through the scene in his armchair, keeping a cautious eye upon Sir Frederick Slade. Far below the Epicurean Gods of the Middle Temple, upon the Parliament Chamber floor, plunged and rolled Mr. Hudson, locked in desperate conflict with the porter and the Under Treasurer. *Qui facit per alium facit per se*, says the law. The Benchers did not attempt to deny, what they could not, indeed, deny, that they were responsible for the assault made under their orders by their subordinates. But, at all events, they did not sully the honour of the Middle Temple by engaging in a personal wrestling match with the slippery Mr. Hudson. Legally speaking, they certainly touched him, but they only touched him, if we may use the expression, with the end of a very long pole.

One of the morals to be drawn from this serio-comic history is, that half-measures are always a mistake. Either the Benchers should have left Mr. Hudson alone, or else they should have let Bye, the porter, finish searching him, without calling in the police. As it was, they committed an assault, and after all did not succeed in recapturing the book. It is difficult to see how Mr. Hudson, in the first instance, could fairly complain of the manner or substance of their cross-examination of him. He went before them as a voluntary witness. By so doing, he accepted for the time being their jurisdiction, and his credibility became necessarily a question of importance to the whole inquiry. Nor did he object on the previous evening to the searching fire of questioning to which he was exposed. Probably he accepted it as part of the position to which he had submitted himself in going there at all. On the next evening, however, a change had come over him; a change so significant that it could only be accounted for by the admitted fact that he had made up his mind in the interim to seize the documents shown him. Whatever his abstract rights, it must be allowed that on this occasion he got possession of the disputed book by an unjustifiable and somewhat ungentlemanly *ruse*. In all likelihood, the best thing to have done would have been to let Mr. Hudson go his way in peace. His conduct in the matter would have been as excellent a comment on the value of his evidence, either against or for Mr. Digby Seymour, as could be supplied by any cross-examination. Their solicitude for Mr. Digby Seymour and their anxiety that nothing should be done to prejudice his case were unnecessarily paraded at the trial by themselves and by their counsel. It was certainly not the business of the Benchers of the Middle Temple to secure Mr. Seymour a fair trial by laying violent hands on a witness who obstructed the proceedings. If, however, they were sufficiently clear about their rights to feel justified in seizing by force the papers which he abstracted, the last persons in the world whose presence was desirable were the police. Their arrival left the Benchers without a remedy. While Mr. Bagshawe as a Chancery barrister may be pardoned for his delightful ignorance of the legal definition of larceny, it is amusing to reflect that the

mistakes committed were committed by the very persons in all England who might be supposed from their experience to have been able to extricate themselves from such a difficulty. It is easy to be wise after the event. We can now see that the Benchers ought never to have trusted Mr. Hudson with the possession of the book at all. There was enough in the documents that lay before him to make them suspicious of everything about him except his cleverness. Nor were they, we understand, unwarned. A distinguished Queen's Counsel, who was present at Mr. Hudson's examination the day before, is said to have distinctly warned them of what afterwards took place.

The battle would never have taken place if it had not been that the Benchers are less of a tribunal, even in their Parliament Chamber, than a collection of honourable English gentlemen who have the passions of their kind. We do not think so much need have been made of Mr. Hudson's alleged insolence; for, though in all probability Mr. Hudson behaved badly and violently to better men than himself, in the eye of the law, nevertheless they were not his superiors, or entitled to ask for more courtesy than they gave. The Goddess of Justice, without her ægis and her sword, would often find herself in an awkward position. The Benchers of the Middle Temple have no authority over the witnesses who choose to be examined by them. They cannot compel propriety of demeanour, and without some such powers as the Courts of Law possess, it is a dangerous thing to cross-examine a strange gentleman as to his own character and honesty. In the discharge of their duty they did not shrink from doing this. In the discharge of their duty they ought, then, to have been ready for a few hard words; or else to have closed the discussion when it became animated. English law recognizes no semi-official Vehmgerichts, who have a right to prescribe to third parties how to behave in the presence of the secret court. Nowhere in Europe could a more honourable or a fairer court be found than the Benchers of an Inn. But Mr. Hudson, perhaps, may not have thought so. At all events, whatever his character, whatever his deserts, he was appearing as a volunteer witness before volunteer examiners, and the law recognizes no fine shade of difference between the status of the volunteer examiner and the volunteer examinee. But to see an inquiry deeply affecting the honour of the bar broken in upon and frustrated by a desperate man's *ruse*, was too much for the patience and discretion of a body of English gentlemen. They may not have acted discreetly. They ought either to have been as wise as serpents or as harmless as doves. But we doubt if they can be said to have committed any fault (if, indeed, there was any fault) which was not of the most venial and trivial description.

The curious trial which has just ended will renew the discussion as to the constitution of the Inns of Court. As a Court of Honour, the Benchers of an Inn have either too much or too little power. They have it in their hands to unfrock a barrister, whose bread depends upon his profession, yet they have not the privileges or the immunities of an ordinary tribunal. The difficulties thrown in their way are innumerable. They cannot call third parties as witnesses, nor can they compel them even to speak the truth when they present themselves. The consequence is, that for purposes of Bar discipline these domestic forums are almost useless. Great offenders daily escape, and must continue to escape, for want of evidence. The late notorious Mr. Edwin James would have escaped had it not been that in a moment of recklessness he consented to the production of evidence which damaged him. Mr. Digby Seymour has been too severely punished for an innocent, too lightly punished for a guilty man. The younger members of the Bar, again, are almost exempt from supervision. A young barrister must be an unfortunate as well as an ill-regulated person who manages to incur the notice of his Benchers. Yet there is more underhand dealing among men who are struggling to achieve a position than among the seniors, who have already achieved it. Instances are not uncommon of men who rise, by practices of the most contemptible nature, to a very prominent place in the profession. When they begin to be prominent at last, they begin at the same time to be virtuous. The code of honour which it is the duty of the Benchers of each Inn to enforce, is, moreover, of itself, a fine and a subtle one. This is, indeed, at the bottom of the whole question, as to the revision of the Inns of Court. It is difficult to know what can be done with the tribunal until we can make up our minds as to the code they have to protect. A great change has taken place of late in the relations existing between solicitors and barristers. Solicitors, nowadays, stand, socially speaking, on a par with the barristers themselves. Their sons and their sons-in-law are barristers, and their patronage is bestowed accordingly. The days are gone by when a gulf separated the two professions. Ought not corresponding changes openly to be allowed in the etiquette of the Bar? It is a wide and a perilous question, but it is one which must be solved before long. Nor is it of much use to reform the constitution of the Inns of Court without extending the preliminary inquiry further. The Bar ought to be governed by a strict code of honour; but not by a code which only can interfere with the success of men who are not likely to be scrupulous.

MINCE-PIES.

ENGLISH "hearths" at this season of the year are typical of the character of English "homes." Tell us, we may almost say, how a man warms himself, and we will tell you what his domestic life is like. The wood logs of France are as good a type of the family histories of France, as the cheerful coal is of the family histories on this more comfortable side of the Channel. While it blazes the wood log is bright enough; but it soon dies away into a glimmer of fire-eaten ashes and exhausted sparks. What in the world can be more dreary than its end in some large room with polished but uncarpeted floors, the wind rattling through the window shutters or behind the sentimental-looking tapestry? While it lasts, it is true, the flame is hot and fierce. Yet even in this respect it is imperfect. If it be lawful to coin a French proverb, one may say that at a wood fire "on se brûle mais on ne se chauffe pas." Cold draughts of air play about the devoted neck of the poetically-minded traveller who tries what heaping log on log, after the manner of the Roman poet, will do, to animate the frozen spirits, or to keep out the piercing arrows of the winter. In vain he cowers closer and closer to the fireplace. He does not find the equal and impartial glow imparted to the human frame in these happy regions where fires are something more than piles of miserable charred wood, and where collieries form a staple part of the wealth of the nation. When we get, on the other hand, to the German stove, we get to something which is nearly as far removed from what we want. Stove-life in Germany is warm enough, but it is desperately close. The same may be said of German sentimentality and German affection. Domestic life, in that delightful country, is extremely affectionate, but rather baking. There is no air about it; and one is burdened by an overpowering sense of too much stove and too little cold water. The soul exists, as it were, in a hot-house, is watered with tepid streams, and comforted and consoled by the atmosphere of perpetual hot-air pipes. This is better, perhaps, than the fierce and windy heat of the draughty French log; but it is anything but ideal perfection. Beyond all doubt, as are the fireplaces of a nation, so is its domestic happiness.

Christmas is coming at last, and there is not a doubt but that Christmas firelight is an essential ingredient in every Christmas scene, more so by far than the holly and the mistletoe, and the other hundred accessories which make it what it is. Montaigne says that the character of a people is most shown in little things; and the way we amuse ourselves at the family Saturnalia, to which this season is devoted, is worthy of that high place which England occupies in the world. Unquestionably eating and drinking stand very high upon the list of Christmas enjoyments. Foreigners are in the habit of repeating one assertion about English habits so often, that at last we ourselves begin to acquiesce in its truth, namely, that an Englishman is never truly happy unless he is eating. Coming from foreign lips, we consider this libellous accusation as a monstrous extravagance. English people do not eat more than foreigners as a rule, and it is doubtful whether they even eat as much. Who eats the most at the French *table d'hôte*, at the twelve o'clock German country town dinner, at the uncomfortable repasts on board the Rhine steamboat, at the Swiss hotels, and at the Italian restaurants? The French colonel, probably, whose regiment is stationed in the town; the German Philister—that human store of sentimental passion and voracious digestive power—the Bonn student, the commis voyageur, and the Italian *employé*. As for foreign ladies, their appetite is fresher than the appetite of English ladies, which is, perhaps, one of the reasons why their complexions in general are less fresh. The marvel is the greater, when we consider how little exercise they take in comparison with what is taken by the corresponding classes in English society. If God Almighty had intended us to walk, said the Florentine fashionable lady to her English friend, he would have given us four legs. An English girl in good health will think little of a pedestrian excursion of six or eight miles at a time, or even more. So wonderful an exertion would be comparatively little known abroad. The wonder, therefore, is that English people do not eat much more than their neighbours, since the life we lead in general is far healthier. But experience teaches us that we eat both seldomer and less. If, therefore, Christmas dinners are the centre round which much of our Christmas happiness revolves, it is not because the Englishman consumes more inordinately than the rest of the world. He may not be trained to eat wisely; but we do not know that it is his besetting sin to eat too well.

To deny that the natives of this free and enlightened country are sensible to the pleasures of a loaded and bright-looking Christmas table, would be to do more than our argument requires. Paradoxical as it may seem to say so, eating and drinking are not purely animal, nor are they by any means degrading tastes. Taste is taste always, whether it is taste in pictures, taste in music, or taste in wines and *entrées*. To discriminate nicely and to appreciate thoroughly what is a well-dressed dish is a certain proof of intellectual cultivation after all. The man who is insensible to his digestion is in all probability a donkey. True philosophy does not underrate the important differences of delicate flavours, and delicate sauces, though the end of life is not in such things, and they ought to be rated at their proper value. It is one thing to despise them, it is another to be ignorant or insensible to them. Our first parents fell before the temptations of an apple. Philosophers from Solomon down to Mr. Thackeray, who have loudly proclaimed that all was vanity, have at the same time seemed to make exceptions in favour of what appealed to the appetite and the taste. Insensibility on this score we need not claim for English people; for we are not sure that it would be

a proof of their good sense if we were to claim it. But at the same time we entirely disbelieve that the reason why we are so devoted at Christmas time to roast beef and to plum-pudding, is that we are as a nation given up to greediness. It is all very well for the Anglo-phobist and England-hater to sneer. We defy M. Girardin and all his hosts. Are there no such things, we beg to ask the cynic, as the pleasures of imagination? We love Christmas cheer, but it is because the associations that Christmas cheer brings with it are imperishable. Long live roast beef, is but a compendious way of saying, long live the delights of memory, the recollections of boyhood, of children's faces, and children's voices. Perpetuating that time-honoured English dish is only a clumsy way of keeping our memories green.

For the very reason that our reminiscences of childhood are so pleasant, Christmas time, as a time of festive and joyous gathering, retains a cherished place in our affections. The old dishes, the old firelight, the snapdragon, and the holly, are pleasant, because they are a tradition of other days. We care to eat, partly because human nature is fallible, but chiefly because we cared so much more to eat long ago. *Fugit juvenus*, as Mr. Thackeray incessantly and pathetically tells us. We once were young; we now are young no more; let us, if possible, be young again. Where are they now, asks the poet, those old familiar faces? Wherever they are, here is Christmas, and we listen gladly to the laugh of children, as the doors fly open and they come tumbling in. Nor will anyone attempt to doubt that much as there is in the firelight and the dinner, and the cheerful room, there is far more in children, whose voices and faces are bound up with the very idea of Christmas. To make children happy is or ought to be the first object of every well-disposed member of society on these occasions, from the most solemn father of a family downwards. An Englishman's life is a busy one, too busy for sentiment or passion. It is only idle nations, as a rule, who are passionate, or whose life is a series of sentimental fevers. Lord bless you, sir, says Sir Titus in the play, we British noblemen have not much time to fall in love. We have no time to blaze like the romantic French firebrand. We have no time to simmer like the affectionate German stove. A tempest of feeling is too exhausting a thing for the English merchant to indulge in at seven o'clock in the evening when he comes home weary of the drudgery of his counting-house. His affection for his children is a placid and refreshing enjoyment, undiversified by storms, unmarred by misunderstandings, unchequered by suspicions. In it he finds rest and amusement, and no call is made upon him for any display of feeling. The English father of a household is never so thoroughly at ease as when he has collected about him the younger members of his family, and sets them to work upon some sweetmeat. Mincepies are excellent in themselves; but their excellence chiefly resides in their power of making little eyes bright.

The mince-pie is, on this account, no bad type of English Christmas merrymaking. The French bonbons, which glitter in our shop-windows through this winter weather, never can typify so much. They come from Paris, and they bring with them the atmosphere of the Boulevards and the Palais Royal. But the most brilliant white paper boxes, and the most elegant silver tracery, will never conceal the fact that they do not belong to an English Christmas. They are no more to be compared to the British mince-pie for sentiment and meaning, than a Carnival masked ball is like an English pantomime. They were invented for a different purpose, and are altogether heartless and unromantic when placed by the side of the honest, affectionate, and domestic mince-pie. Like the mince-pie, it is true they have one merit,—they were invented to make people bright and happy. The invention of them, however, shows how different with different nations is the beau-ideal of happiness and pleasure. An Englishman's notion of a pleasant evening is to make children happy. This object is effected by the mince-pie. A Frenchman's idea of a bright evening is to make women happy and bright; and it is for women that bonbons were discovered. The society of children is what the business-like Briton asks for and enjoys. Feminine society is the staple necessary of a Frenchman's leisure hours. We are not now discussing the question as to which occupation is best or most refined. Suffice it to say that the bonbon is the peculiar property of the lady; the mince-pie of the child. Cynical critics will assert, no doubt, that one half of the ladies on the Continent are but children in disguise. At all events they are to the foreigners, what children are to men with us. The French gentleman takes the French lady, on a gala day, to the Jardin des Plantes. The English gentleman takes his little people to the Zoological Gardens. We prefer our own habits, and our own domestic life. The bonbon is an ornamental acquisition, we confess, but it never will take root like the mince-pie. It is to be hoped that the rising generation will make a stand against the influx of these continental looking strangers. We may safely say of the bonbon box, what all stable-minded English statesmen say of the ballot-box, that it is un-English. The mince-pie is more wholesome in the first place, and in the second it is eminently national. During the coming week, the great truth, we trust, will not be forgotten. Mincepies, at any rate, are synonymous with good cheer. The bonbon for such purposes is illusory and unsubstantial. Let us beware of such glittering and deceptive gifts. "Timeo Gallos et dona ferentes." English tastes should be more substantial and less showy. Take back the bonbon, and give us good cheer; for what says the song?

Christmas comes but once a year:
When it comes, it brings good cheer.

THE COBURGS AT HOME.

THE proposed candidature of Ferdinand of Portugal for the vacant throne of Greece shows that fortune has not ceased to smile on the Grand-Ducal House of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha. Two of the European thrones are already occupied by scions of this illustrious race, and a Coburg dynasty will replace the Hanoverian on our own throne on the demise of the present Queen. The throne of Greece would add a fourth to the number. Intimately as our royal family is connected with this fortunate race of Saxon Grand-Dukes, little is known among us about their history, or about the condition, the finances, and mode of government of the two united Duchies of Coburg and Gotha, or the relations which they bear to the other Saxon Grand Duchies.

The grand-ducal families of Saxony, including that of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, are usually considered to be a younger branch of the family of the kings of Saxony. The superiority in rank attained by the latter gives colour to this impression, which is, however, incorrect. The grand-ducal family is, in fact, the elder line, and the rank and fortune enjoyed by the younger line are due, not to the merits of its founders, but to the zeal with which they opposed the Reformation. The sovereign Saxon families profess to trace their origin to Wittekind, a leader of the Saxons who offered a stout resistance to the victorious arms of Charlemagne, but was finally subdued. The history of the times which intervened between that period and the year 1260 is confused, but about that period a prince, called Henry the Illustrious, Margrave of Meissen, seems, after a long war of conflicting claims, to have remained in possession of the district of Thuringia, and to have united beneath his lordship the greater part of the old country of the Saxons, which extended from the Rhine to the Elbe. On his death, about the year 1290, fresh disputes arose respecting the succession, which led to continuous wars for a long period of years. The family, however, continued to prosper, and the electoral dignity was attained by them about the year 1400. On the death of one of the electors in the year 1460, his two sons, Ernest and Albert, continued to rule and administer the Government in common till the year 1485, when they agreed to divide the estates and the kingdom between them,—Ernest, the elder, retaining, with the title of Elector, Weimar, Gotha, and Coburg; and the younger having for his share Meissen and the remaining part of Thuringia, including, among other places, Leipzig and Dresden. John, the son of Ernest, was the elector who introduced the Reformation into his dominions, and acceded to the league of Schmalkald. His son and successor, the unfortunate John Frederick, who had also joined the league of Schmalkald, was put under the ban of the empire by Charles V., for his adhesion to the Protestant cause, and was, after his defeat and imprisonment, stripped of the dignity of elector, besides a great part of his estates, which were with the electoral title transferred to his kinsman of the younger or Albertine branch. Certain portions of the estates were, however, retained, in accordance with his capitulation, for his three sons, who agreed to divide the remainder amongst them. On the extinction of two of these lines, the estates became again vested, about the year 1638, in the representatives of the third line, only, however, to be again subdivided. By virtue of this fresh subdivision, in the year 1640, Weimar and Eisenach fell to the lot of the elder of the sons of the Duke, and Gotha and other portions were assigned to the younger. The present Grand Duke of Saxe-Weimar is the lineal descendant of the former of these two, and he is therefore the proper male representative and head of the sovereign families of Saxony, both royal and grand-ducal. The possession assigned to the second of the two sons again went through a process of subdivision on his death. The Duke left seven sons, who were directed by his will to reign in common. For some time after his death the precepts contained in the will were observed, but about the year 1680 a partition took place amongst them. The seven parts into which the estates had been subdivided were reduced, by the extinction of three of the lines without heirs male, about the year 1710, to four, namely, Gotha, Meiningen, Hildburghausen, and Saalfeld. A redistribution of the estates was thereupon again made between these four, and Coburg having fallen to the lot of the youngest, he assumed the title of Coburg-Saalfeld. In the year 1826 the line of Gotha became extinct, and a new partition between the three remaining lines took place. Hildburghausen having been made over to Meiningen by virtue of that partition, in exchange for Altenburg, the Duke assumed the title of Saxe-Altenburg instead of his previous designation; and Gotha having fallen to the line of Coburg-Saalfeld, the title of Coburg-Gotha was assumed by the Duke. The second subdivision of the elder or Ernestine line of Saxon princes is, therefore, now represented by the Grand Dukes of Saxe-Meiningen, Saxe-Altenburg, and Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.

These three grand-ducal houses enjoy, collectively with that of Saxe-Weimar, one vote out of the seventeen in the German Diet, and enjoy, each one individually, one vote out of sixty-six in all matters relating to any organic alteration in the constitution of the Germanic confederation.

Saxe-Weimar is not only the eldest in line, but is also the largest in extent, and the most populous of the duchies. The population in 1858 amounted to 267,000. Saxe-Meiningen, the eldest of the second line, comes next, having in 1858 a population of 168,000. After it comes Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, with a population of 153,000, and Saxe-Altenburg is somewhat smaller. Each of the duchies possesses a free and liberal constitution of its own. That of Saxe-Weimar dates from the year 1816, but was altered to a considerable degree in the year 1850. The Chamber, which is a single one, consists of thirty-one representatives, ten of whom are chosen by the nobility

and gentry, ten by the cities, ten by the peasants, and one by the University of Jena. The constitution of the duchy of Saxe-Meiningen dates from the year 1829, and was altered in 1853. The Chamber, which is also a single one, consists of twenty-four members, two of whom are nominated by the Duke, eight by the cities, and the other fourteen by the owners of real and personal property. The Chamber of representatives of the duchy of Saxe-Altenburg consists also of twenty-four members, elected much in the same way, except that none of them are nominated by the Duke. The duchies of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, though they have been united for upwards of thirty years, continue still to possess separate constitutions. Efforts have been from time to time made by the present Grand Duke and his father to effect a union, but all attempts have hitherto failed. Local causes and petty jealousies have been the grounds of failure; Gotha, which is the largest of the duchies both in population and extent, feels slighted in not having been selected by the grand-ducal family as their place of residence, and cannot forget the importance it enjoyed previously to the failure of its own line of dukes. The general antagonistic feeling which is so deeply rooted in Germany, and divides the whole country into States sharing in North German or South German sympathies, comes also into play, and helps in keeping the two duchies disunited. They are not, as any person may see on referring to the map, contiguous, but all distant from each other about fifteen miles, being separated by the duchy of Meiningen, and by an outlying part of the kingdom of Prussia. Coburg is properly part of Franconia, one of the old divisions of Southern Germany, and still retains the memory of its old associations.

The frontier line which separates the two classes of sympathies runs between the two duchies, and it sets Gotha on the North German, and Coburg on the South German side. The difference in these sympathies is at once seen from the difference of the currency as used in the two duchies. The thaler, or North German coin, is the money of Gotha; the florin, or South German coin, is the money of Coburg. The inability of the Grand Duke to do away with these feelings, and to bring about a union between the two constituent parts of his very small and petty principality, does not augur well for the success of his efforts to induce the Germans to sink their mutual differences, and agree upon some scheme of unity. Coburg and Gotha have each a separate elective Chamber and a separate administration. The Chamber of Coburg consists of eleven representatives, that of Gotha of nineteen. Though his attempts to bring about a fusion of his duchies has not been crowned with success, the Grand Duke has been enabled to induce both his Chambers to enter into a military convention with Prussia. This convention came into operation on the 1st of July in this year, and is to last for ten years. Though the contingent which the duchies contribute to the army of the Confederation does not amount to more than 1,860 men, the event is one of considerable importance; and the precedent thus established has been followed and adopted in most of its details by the States of Saxe-Altenburg and of Waldeck. The preamble of the convention states that the motive of its adoption has been the desire to increase the defensive resources of the country by assimilating the military organization of the small States to that of one of the two large States; and the convention itself ordains that all the regulations and administrative details of the Prussian military system shall have immediate operation in the duchies. The Grand Duke retains the position of a general in command over the contingent, but remains under the supremacy of the King of Prussia. The soldiers of the contingent take the oath of allegiance to the Grand Duke; the officers give him only their word of honour, but when called upon in the course of their military duties to enter into Prussia, swear the oath of allegiance to the King. The contingent cannot be called on to do garrison duty in Prussia without the consent of the Grand Duke. Several other details are provided for, but these are the most important.

It would be, perhaps, tedious to enter into any detailed account of the financial condition of the duchies. With respect, however, to Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, it may be stated that the revenues of the State are derived partly from general taxation, and partly from the management of the domain lands. There is a public debt, but its amount does not exceed £170,000. The proceeds of the general taxation give in Gotha a sum of about £90,000, and in Coburg, one of about £40,000 a-year. The expenditure, however, balances the income so nearly that it may be said there is no surplus. The management of the domain lands, however, gives a surplus in both duchies, which is divided in certain proportions between the Grand Duke and the treasury of the duchy. This surplus has, for the last few years, averaged yearly about £27,000 in Gotha, and £6,000 in Coburg. From the surplus in the former duchy, the Grand Duke derives a fixed sum of about £18,000 a year, and takes the half of that in the other. His income, therefore, from this source is about £21,000 a year. He possesses some private property in addition, but not to any great extent. The Duke is childless at present. In the event of his dying without male heirs, the succession to the grand-ducal dignities falls to the sons of the Queen. No positive arrangement has, it is generally understood, been come to on the subject; but it is looked upon as certain that the Prince of Wales will renounce all claim in favour of his younger brothers.

The scenery of the duchies of Coburg and Gotha is in most parts extremely pretty. The old castle of Coburg, perched upon an isolated rock and towering over the little town which lies nestled at its feet, is a perfect model of an old feudal castle, and must in former days have been deemed impreg-

nable. Coburg itself is a sorry and shabby place, and puts one in mind of a third-rate English agricultural town. The square in the centre and the ducal residence have both some pretension, but do not relieve the general meanness of the place. Much cannot be said in favour of Gotha, but of the two places it is, without any doubt, the better, and has many claims to be selected as the residence of the Grand Duke. The castle is a large and handsome palatial building, in the old German style, surrounded by gardens and commanding a fine distant view of the mountains of the Thuringian forest. Rheinhardtsbrunn, where the Queen has been lately staying, is about nine miles from Gotha, in one of the most beautiful parts of the forest, and was formerly the site of a Benedictine convent. The Inselsberg, one of the highest of the mountains of the forest, is in the immediate neighbourhood, and the ascent to its summit forms one of the common excursions from Rheinhardtsbrunn. The road lies for the most part through rich and luxuriant forests of pine and beech, which crown the shoulders of the mountain till within about 600 feet of the summit. The view from the top is most extensive, and amply repays the labour of the ascent. The woods and forests in the duchies of Coburg and Gotha, as well as in the other Saxon duchies, and indeed in all the other parts of the Thuringian district, are extremely beautiful, and form one of the chief sources of the revenue derived from the Crown and domain lands. Nearly one-third in extent of the whole duchy of Gotha consists of forests, three-fourths of them belonging to the public domain. The extent and the proportion in Coburg is much smaller. The management of forests,—or forest cultivation, as it is called in Germany,—has been long a special branch of education in that country, and colleges have been established for the express purpose. Till within the last few years the best forest college of central Germany was at Meiningen; it has, however, been lately removed to Eisenach, in the duchy of Weimar, which is very rich in fine forests. The office of master or ranger, as we call it, of the forests, is held in high honour in Germany, and is generally filled either by one of the mediatised princes, or by one of the chief men in the different states.

PANTOMIMES.

Those who are inclined to sneer at the present age for being too eminently practical, who believe that poetry is dead, that the ancient faiths are dried up, that imagination is over-ridden by hard facts and a cold-blooded realism, should read the announcements of the Christmas pantomimes. Every dead wall, every newspaper, every shop that will take in a play-bill, in town or country, is filled with tidings of other and strange worlds. The good old nursery stories are kept alive, the wildest legends are accepted with child-like faith, and the dreams of fairy-land are more than realized. The rough costermonger in the street, the gentle child sitting at its mother's feet, the knowing boy returning from school, the busy shopkeeper, the household drudge, the old and young, the rich and poor, have, for once, got something in common. They look forward to that night when the green curtains rise on a thousand magic groves, when blue-nosed demons emerge from caves, when bright-eyed fairies float on gossamer clouds, and when painted philosophers, with little veneration for appearances, expose the hollowness of the every-day world. The lessons that may be gathered from pantomimes are not to be despised. With all our vast educational organization, there are still large classes who are reached by no school except the theatre or the music-hall, and the glimpse of something beyond a daily round of beef, tobacco, and beer, conveyed even through such a tinselled medium as a theatrical bower of bliss, is better than nothing to those whom no churches have been able to attract.

The philosophy of pantomimes is a subject on which volumes might be written, filled probably with as much rubbish as half the commentaries upon Shakespeare. A broad design for a philosophical pantomime was once sketched out by Samuel Taylor Coleridge, in which Charles Lamb and Cottle ought to have played the clown and pantaloon. We have unphilosophical pantomimes in private life every day; and men who are nothing, if not half-developed clowns. A vast amount of misdirected animal spirits, of physical energy, of contempt for conventionalities, is hourly let loose in the world, which only wants the patched cheeks, the checked stockings, and the bag-breeches—the outward and visible signs of clownhood—to complete its identity. There was once a notorious Marquis of Waterford who was essentially an inferior clown; and there is now a notorious Mr. Windham who is strongly moved by the spirit of pantomime. We need not maintain our assertion with a melancholy catalogue of names. The clown has always a warrant for all that he says or does in some corner or other of humanity.

The character now presented to an admiring public as the central figure of the harlequinade—or “comic business” of the pantomime—is not the growth of a single age, or of one country. The bustling drama in which he takes the leading part, under the old English name of Clown, is probably the oldest existing stage-play in the world; and he is not the invention of one author, but of many men and many minds. To some extent he is a born thrall of tradition. He staggers about with the weight of many centuries on his back. He is probably more ancient than the horse-rider in the circus, the posturer with the bent back, the juggler with the four brass balls. His movements, whims, and fancies were laid down when the earth was very young; and they will be transmitted from generation to generation until it becomes withered and old. In days when the freedom of thought and speech was doled out by grasping officials—when Rabelais and kindred

authors took to clowning in literature to convey their hatred and contempt for fine old crusted authority, the clown doubtless grew apace in reckless humour. As a tolerated jester he did the work of smothered reformers, and yet escaped the gallows or the stake. The same license extended to school-boys during the holidays was doubtless then extended to the clown. He made faces before his ushers, and burnt his masters in effigy without reproof. Now, in London, in 1862, he has probably no more freedom of action than he had in the dark ages. His movements—his utterances—his quips and cranks—are jealously watched over by a Court lacquey. The metropolitan stage ought to be very pure when the master of its ceremonies is a Lord Chamberlain.

Many innovations have been introduced into the pantomime from time to time, some of which have only maintained their popularity for a brief season. The ghastly Pierrot, or clown of the French stage, was transplanted as a companion for the English clown; but he never struck root. The dandy was another shadow which had its day—flitting between the four chief pantomimists in the comic action—and now his place is often filled with tumbling sprites. The introduction, or fairy opening, has been made more splendid by different managers every year, and mines of wealth have been lavished upon elaborate transformation scenes which required half an hour to unfold their beauties. Natural accessories have been introduced in aid of the artificial resources of the scene-painter and machinist; Madame Vestris and Mr. Beverley being the first to outstrip all competitors in the ingenuity and beauty of their combinations. Living nymphs were planted in graceful positions in the scenery, and solid structures took the place of painted views. Some of the effects produced were of unsurpassed beauty, and each combination strove to outdo the last. Much, however, as the old Lyceum management did to advance transformation scenes, and exhaust all the variations which could be played upon this source of attraction, they still left something untried for another gleaner in the same field. Mr. Callcott's lake of looking-glass, reflecting a forest of opening ferns containing half-hidden nymphs, exhibited at the Lyceum during Madame Celeste's management, a few seasons ago, surpassed all former transformation scenes in rich, calm, poetic beauty.

There can be no doubt that the undue development of this taste for scenic splendour has rather overshadowed the "comic business" of pantomime, and checked the supply of good clowns. We have now been many years watching for the advent of a new Grimaldi, but he has not appeared. In Grimaldi's days the comic business was the pantomime; the opening was strictly introductory, and, though giving scope for good pantomimic acting, was never allowed to overbalance the harlequinade. This was an inducement for a man like Grimaldi—the son of a ballet-master—to devote himself to his art. What he did, if done well, met with instant recognition and approval. His smallest comic efforts were as much noticed by the press as the more ambitious performances of the leading tragedians. Criticism spurred him on, and rewarded him for his exertions. His successors may be less clever, and they are certainly less fortunate. Newspaper theatrical criticism has now fallen to a very low ebb, and ranks very little above mere reporting. Criticism applied to pantomime has scarcely any existence. Twenty theatres now stand in London, where formerly there were only half a dozen, and all these establishments produce their pantomimes on the same night. If any daily journal has a William Hazlitt on its staff, it can only send him to one theatre, and the rest of the houses, with their entertainments, have to be noticed by the rank-and-file of the working staff. Parliamentary, law, police, and general reporters, suddenly bud into critics for one night only, and struggle through their work according to their lights. If the names of all the costumiers, composers, mask-makers, scene-painters, and stage-managers, pressing forward for publicity, are got safely into print, with the names of the pieces, a hazy account of their plots, and a play-bill description of their leading scenes, this is as much as we can expect. A sound dramatic critic is hardly made under a quarter of a century's training; and, therefore, we have no right to blame the reporters. Unsound critics, with their unsound, or negative criticism, make unsound actors, and this is one great cause of the decline of pantomimists.

How deeply the clown, with all his sayings and doings, his domestic life and his theatrical life, has engaged our thoughts and affections, may be gathered from our literature. We have a thousand stories in which he figures as the hero, and where as much sentiment and effect has been drawn from the contrast between his public and private life as the French have drawn from *paillasse*—the mountebank. The wonder, admiration, and affection which children have for clowns are wide-spread and genuine. An actor of our acquaintance was once in company with a little child who knew that he was connected with the stage, and seemed to regard him with envious interest. The actor drew the child towards him, and tried to engage it in conversation. The child had evidently something on its mind to which it wished to give utterance, and, encouraged by the actor's manner, it at last said, "How near have you been to a clown?"

The biography of our greatest clown has been put together by our greatest writer of fiction; and as a record of a real man who worked without talking, who was not always soul-musing, making his life a poem, and taking huge springs for leaps which were never executed, it may be read with advantage by the side of Carlyle's "Life of Sterling." The dissipated career and early death of Grimaldi's son was a loss to the pantomimic stage, as, from all accounts, he promised to surpass his father. Of late years, we have had an

excellent clown in Mr. Tom Matthews, a fanciful and accomplished pantomimist in Mr. W. H. Payne, and two very promising clowns in Mr. Forrest and Mr. Hillyard. The last performer is engaged for the pantomime sketch at the Adelphi. Mr. Paul Herring, a clown who was once very popular at the minor theatres, ought not to be omitted from this list. Like the late Mr. Flexmore, he was trained in the best school for pantomimists—the minor theatres; but, unlike Mr. Flexmore, he never came out of it.

The Christmas feast of London pantomimes spread out last night is rich and varied, not too much overlaid with burlesque introductions, and not stinted in splendid transformation scenes. At Covent Garden we have the old story of Beauty and the Beast; at Drury Lane the subject is a combination of Goody Two Shoes and Cock Robin; the Adelphi gives a harlequinade after its burlesque; at the Princess's, Mother Shipton is associated with Riquet with the Tuft; Astley's, under its new management, gives a pantomime founded on Lord Dundreary's supposed life; the Royalty has taken the story of Humpty Dumpty; the Marylebone has plunged into history, taking its subject from the loves of King Hal and Ann Boleyn; and these are all the pantomimes prepared for the West-end of London. The Lyceum is not yet open, the St. James's relies upon a serio-comic fairy story, and the Haymarket, Olympic, and Strand theatres have been true to burlesques. Sadler's Wells has an original pantomimic sketch, called the Rose of Blarney; the Surrey has taken Mother Goose; and all the outlying minor theatres, having to provide for patrons who are good judges of pantomime, have acted like prudent traders. For the next month or two there will be nothing but lakes of lilies, haunts of wood nymphs, fairy sunshines, and squibs upon garrotting, Lord Dundreary, and the International Exhibition, at all our theatres. Hundreds of thousands will be amused, many thousands will be employed; and we heartily wish such wholesome folly a long and prosperous season.

THE LAND-TAX IN GREECE.

WE have spoken of England's mission in Greece, of the reforms necessary to be carried out there, with a view to establish a constitutional monarchy. Whoever be the future King of Greece, on England will especially devolve the duty of aiding the existing Government to implant in Greece a pure form of constitutional freedom, of instructing the people how best to apply it to their advantage, and of giving to it such firm root in the country that it may be transplanted into neighbouring states. To aid in carrying these views into effect, we have advocated the total abolition of the Land-tax, with all its abuses, and the miseries inflicted on the taxpayers by the exercise of the arbitrary powers required for its collection. This tax constitutes nearly one-third of the whole national revenue; still it is absolutely certain that unless it be abolished, the progress of industry and the revival of agriculture are equally impossible. To achieve these results, the rural population of Greece must be relieved from this burden, which numbs their energies by depriving them of the fair profits of their labour. Then, and then only, may we hope to see free institutions flourish in Greece, and the country re-peopled by Christians glad to live under a constitutional form of government, and ready and able to develop the agricultural riches of the soil.

It must be remembered that Greece is essentially an agricultural country. Only one half of it is now cultivated, whilst vast fertile plains remain untouched. Even the cultivated portion yields only from five to seven bushels an acre, in lieu of twelve, fourteen, or more, which it might easily be made to yield under an improved system of husbandry. The only system at present in force is to till a patch of ground as long as it will yield any return, then to abandon it for other fresher soil. The only implement of agriculture known to the Greek is a home-made plough, such as was used in the time of Homer, and is constantly carried about on the shoulders of the husbandmen. This primitive, half-civilized condition of the people, this lack of cultivation in the country, the decrease in the rural population, the unwillingness of Greeks to invest capital in promoting agriculture in Greece,—all these are evils clearly traceable to the Land-tax, and the mode in which it has been assessed and collected. The Land-tax is essentially a barbarous tax and opposed to civilization, because, being a tax on the gross produce of the land, not on the land itself, it impedes all progress or improvement in agriculture. Throughout the East the peasant is happy who, after paying the tax-gatherer or Farmer, can retain each year a sufficiency of the grain grown by himself to support his family until the next harvest. In Greece it not unfrequently happens that the poor cultivator is unable to make any such provision, or even to pay the rent of his land. He falls into the hands of an exacting Farmer or a hard landlord, who is, not unfrequently, also a usurious money-lender. By either, or at times by both together, industry is paralyzed, the cultivation is ruined, whilst the cultivator himself, deserting the country, is forced to earn food as a daily labourer in some town, or if not burdened with a family, not unusually resorts to brigandage as a profession.

There is no "Cadastre," or register of land, in Greece; so that the cultivating tenant has no public record either of the particular land which he holds, or of the rent at which he holds it. The Land-tax varies in amount. In some few cases it is 3 per cent. of the gross produce, but in a very large majority of cases it is 10 per cent. Besides this, the tenant, if the lands be held of the Crown, pays an additional 15 per cent.; if the land be held of a private individual, he pays the rent agreed upon. This additional sum is called the usufruct. The whole agricultural produce of the country

is in the hands of the Farmers; no cultivator is allowed to touch the produce of his own land, except by permission of the Farmer, who exacts his tenths for everything, even from grapes, olives, garden produce, silk, and green crops. Here at once we have a wide field for extortion laid open to the Farmer. In the case of perishable crops he has only to delay his inspection of them to make them worthless to the owner; the latter, knowing well, that on fifty legal pleas he can thus be made to suffer a great loss, is but too glad to compromise with the Farmer, who, in his turn, is always well informed of the exact value of the crops of any man on his list. But let us follow the Farmer through the various steps of his assessment and collection. Let us imagine, then, a large district with patches of every possible size and shape planted with barley, wheat, rye, millet, and Indian corn. The Land-tax is assessed on these several patches, but there being no public register, the arbitrary will of the Farmer determines the amount to be paid by the cultivator. And observe, appeal is impossible against the decision of the Farmer. If proof were possible in the absence of a legal register, too many of the highest functionaries are interested in supporting him in his extortion. The law prescribes the mode of collection after the assessment has been completed. The Farmer fixes the day of reaping; this he does irrespective of the condition of the crops or the interests of the people, but to suit his own convenience. He also directs to which public threshing-ground the grain is to be carried and within what period. The poor peasant cultivators, in compliance with the orders received, which they dare not disobey, contrive to carry their crops a distance, which may be fairly averaged at six miles, on the backs of pack animals, chiefly donkeys, by tracks, for there are no roads or wheels in the interior of Greece. Arrived at the public threshing-ground, they pile their crops, and then await the permission of the Farmer to thresh them. The grain, when threshed and winnowed, is placed in heaps, and each cultivator is obliged to watch his own heap until the Farmer has taken therefrom the amount of his assessment. To protect himself against fraud, each Farmer has a large seal or brand, with which he contrives so to mark each heap immediately after it is made that nothing can be extracted from it without detection. The Farmer's portion is at length fairly separated from that of the cultivator. The former is placed in the public magazines, the latter is carried to the hut of the cultivator, who very frequently loses the larger portion of his straw as he cannot afford the expense of transporting it home. Under this demoralizing system the whole of the agricultural population of Greece are forced to spend at least three months of every year, not only away from home, but living in the open air in the public threshing-grounds. Moreover, they are compelled to submit to the heavy loss which necessarily arises from transporting their grain over the worst possible roads or tracks, and from the voracity of rats and birds, which are instinctively attracted in great numbers to every threshing-floor. The quiet submission of the Greeks to such despotic oppression is perhaps best explained by the fact that the Greeks of the present day are the descendants of those Greeks who did not scruple to sacrifice their first-born male child to the Sultan, to fill up the ranks of his army. Under Otho the land-tax has been made more oppressive than it was under the Turks; for the Turks had a Cadastre, or register (in Turkish, called *Mashata*), of all assessable lands, and the cultivators were, in a great degree, protected by the Turkish municipal authorities, which by Otho were converted into a powerful and venal instrument of his corrupt and centralized administration. It would be useless to explain here in detail the ingenious frauds which are resorted to by Government officials through whose hands the grain passes, from the time it is collected on the threshing-floor until it is converted into cash and paid into the public treasury. False measures in receiving the grain into store and selling it therefrom, forced and fictitious sales, even open robbery, are amongst the usual forms of fraud employed.

The extent of these frauds was clearly brought to light by the Financial Commission which closed its labours in 1859. It must be observed, that the tax of one-tenth, and the rent of one-fifteenth, to both of which we have already referred, are paid to the Government through the Farmers of the taxes in kind. The produce thus received is afterwards sold by the Government, and the proceeds placed to the credit of the nation. Now the Financial Commission ascertained that within a period of fifteen years the price of grain had doubled, and that each year there was an increased cultivation of cereals. On turning to the accounts to see how far the item of land-tax had increased during the same period, the Commission was only able to trace an increase of about 12 per cent., although it had reasonably calculated on finding far above 100 per cent. The deficiency may be looked upon as a fairly approximate estimate of the amount robbed from the Greek treasury each year on this one item alone of the national revenue. Bad as this systematic peculation is, it is far from being the most injurious consequence to the State resulting from the Land-tax. For we have already shown that it impedes agriculture and encourages brigandage, that it impoverishes the people and enriches their oppressors, that it demoralizes the rural population and tends to depopulate the agricultural districts. Obviously, such a tax cannot coexist with a constitutional government; it must therefore be abolished.

A few remarks on the tax which may be best substituted for the present Land-tax may be useful. At present, an income-tax, or a payment in money, is impracticable for many reasons well known to those conversant with the condition of Greece. A poll-tax might, we think, be levied with

justice, and without oppression, in Greece on the system supported by Royer in a prize essay on the "Theory of Taxation," recently presented to the Council of State of the Canton of Vaud, despite of all said to the contrary by Adam Smith, Say, or Turgot. But the system which appears to be in every way most applicable to existing circumstances in Greece would be a Land-tax, to be fixed annually or triennially by juries, according to the value of the land; the juries to be composed of the agriculturists, under the presidency of a municipal or a government official, vested with power to veto the verdict of the jury pending the decision of the central authorities. A right of appeal should also be granted to the taxpayers under certain restrictions.

There can exist but little doubt that under a form of legislation based on these principles, the Greek cultivator would soon learn how, by increased industry, he might better his condition and increase his wealth. In Greece, an inheritance of injustice left by the past has to be repaired by the present generation. This may be effected by fixing the new Land-tax at a low figure, and gradually increasing it with the improved condition of the country. Capital is indispensably necessary to the development of the agricultural resources of Greece, even though none existed in the country itself, which is far from being the case; for it is possessed in abundance by the millionaire Greek merchants, and may be obtained elsewhere whenever the Greeks honestly fulfil their financial treaty engagements. If the Greek merchants really wish to show true patriotism, they cannot now better show it than by forming companies or societies for the cultivation of the vast plains of rich lands now lying waste in Greece; by investing capital in these undertakings; and by teaching the people an improved system of husbandry, which would bring comfort and happiness to them, fit them for the Constitution they desire, without being able to appreciate, and add fully 25 per cent. to their income.

It is by these, or similar means, that the power of the new monarch can best be consolidated on the throne of Greece; that Greece can become equally prosperous with other small European states; and that the Greek people can be enabled to extend the hand of hospitality to millions of Christians whom the Sultan is unable to protect or repress, and who may any day be made to suffer from Mahometan fanaticism, as were the Christians in Syria. Day by day the Turk's hold on the Christian population becomes weaker, and eventually they must fall from his grasp. If Greece fails to acquire by Turkish misfortunes an increase of territory, she may calculate with certainty on acquiring an increase of population, if she will only so modify her laws and fiscal administration as to encourage immigration. The three protecting Powers can do much, by financial pressure, to enforce upon Greece the adoption of necessary reforms, under a moral and correct administration. That they will exert themselves in so good a cause is earnestly to be hoped. With England, we hold it to be a sacred duty to profit by the present conjuncture in Greece, to secure for herself in the East a moral power, sufficient to counteract other influences which will ever be opposed to those of England, whatever phase the so called "Eastern question" may assume.

SCIENCE AT THE UNIVERSITIES.

At the last meeting of the British Association at Cambridge, remarks were made by various speakers upon the slightness of the encouragement offered to the physical sciences at the University. In such a gathering of men of science, it was not unnatural that many should look with a little virtuous indignation upon so many loaves and fishes all going the wrong way, meaning, of course, a way which was not their way. It seemed hard to the crowds of philosophers who swarmed in every section from B to Z, that they should all be esteemed as nothing at Cambridge in comparison with their brethren of Section A. Why should chemists, geologists, and physiologists, and the votaries of every other ology under heaven, be reduced to pick up the crumbs beneath the well-spread table of the mathematicians? It may be hopeless to address a convincing argument to such complainants; to persuade any man that his pet hobby should not be encouraged, and that he should not be paid for riding it, is a task too hard for the ablest logician. It may, however, be worth while to explain a little more fully than could be done in a passing notice, what is the ground which the University actually takes up in this matter, and what is to be said in its favour.

Why does not the University bestow some of its rewards upon distinction of another kind than that which may be won in the mathematical and classical triposes? The answer, as given at the late meeting at Cambridge, may be said to be threefold. In the first place, it was said, it does so bestow some of its rewards; secondly, it does not so bestow them because it considers mathematics and classics to be the best mental training which its pupils can receive; and thirdly, whatever may be thought of these replies, it was urged that undoubtedly no other branches of learning can afford materials for examinations in which a man's ability and acquirements may be so accurately tested. Whether the studies are in themselves better worth pursuing or not, whether or not they give the best training to the most important faculties, they at any rate supply a balance in which such faculties as they do exercise may be most delicately and accurately weighed.

We may make a few remarks upon each of these replies. With regard to the first, we are of opinion that it is one of those replies which had better be touched with a very light and delicate hand. It is true that the University stands ready to ask anybody any number of questions upon almost any branch of human knowledge. It is true that a certain bold but extremely

limited band (they have in some years amounted, we believe, to nearly six), present themselves annually for examinations in certain moral or physical sciences, the mere list of which might make a man's hair stand on end, even though his foible were omniscience. But the University has probably adopted these examinations for motives like those which induce a native Australian occasionally to array himself on grand days in a pocket-handkerchief. It is just enough to swear by; at the same time it is barely enough for decency, and certainly not enough to make a boast of. If, however, the University has, to some extent, managed to cover its nakedness with a natural science tripos, it has gone but a very slight way towards inducing any one to subject himself to the torture which such an examination must involve. The Master of St. John's, indeed, alluded very skilfully to the fact that one, and possibly two, fellowships, had been given, in the course of the last ten or twelve years, to men who would not have been certain of obtaining them for their distinction in the older studies of the place. The stipends, previously almost ridiculous, of one or two of the scientific professors, have lately been raised, and there is a prospect that museums will in time be built to hold scientific collections. With the best will in the world, it is impossible to make out that any large proportion of the rivers of gold and silver which flow through that land of promise have yet been diverted into the pockets of any but mathematicians or classical scholars.

We are very far from thinking that any one has a right to blame the University for this, even if he has decided previously that there ought to be some change made in the direction of its studies. It has been the peculiar boast of Cambridge that her rewards have been always distributed for distinctions gained in open and severe competition. Any college would have simply stultified itself by giving fellowships for pre-eminence in examinations where there was no distinction and very little competition. The old triposes, which were the first, and are probably still by far the best, specimens of competitive examination extant, were successful because there was already an organized and energetic system of instruction, and a large body of students in those subjects. They only supplied an additional motive for exertion and gave an accurate measure of the effectiveness of a system already in operation. But between them and the modern triposes there is the same difference as there would be between giving a prize for a horse-race at Newmarket and at one of those islands where the only known quadrupeds are pigs. Of course, the horses might be attracted in time, but meanwhile the competition would be languid. There are, of course, mutual complaints to be made. The colleges say justly that they refuse their prizes to the winners in such sham struggles. The supporters of the new studies reply that the struggles will always be sham till an expectation of college rewards induces emulation to increase and a genuine school of scientific students to grow up.

The truth is that in an old corporation like the Universities, such changes can only be introduced gradually and cautiously. The amount of rewards to be obtained can, if there is a good will to it, be gradually extended, as the studies improve and establish their right to a place in the University course; but we have not the least wish to see the University at once advertise itself as an eligible academy for young gentlemen, and burst out all over professors of every science, from anthropology (whatever that is) down to elocution. We hope that new studies will be received with due caution, if without dislike or suspicion, and made to establish an equitable claim to every foot of ground they occupy.

But is the introduction of new studies to be assumed to be in itself desirable? Would it be an improvement, if it were a possibility, to depose mathematics and classics from their ancient supremacy? The discussion of this subject upon general principles would perhaps be more appropriate to a debating society than to the columns of a newspaper. Certainly we cannot attempt in our limited space to solve the problem, what kind of study is most improving to a man's mind; and still less, how far those studies should be cultivated to the exclusion of all others. But from a lower point of view there are one or two very obvious considerations. On the one hand, the present system of study has an amount of prestige in England which may safely defy any danger of assault. If a sudden edict could establish professors and tutors to teach physical sciences in every public school and university, it would certainly be slow in convincing students that the honours to be obtained were anything but a kind of pinchbeck imitation of the old-established prizes, and still slower in teaching parents that their sons had by any new-fashioned road gained that mysterious advantage which advertisements describe as a sound English education. What is perhaps equally difficult, the new professors would have to be created as well as appointed. The body of teachers existing at any given time have always one admirable reason for a conservative policy. On these grounds, if on no others, we look upon the sudden introduction of new studies on anything like a level with the old ones, as something perfectly visionary. On the other hand, we must add that there is a real danger to the University in extreme conservatism. The present system comes essentially to this. A very large amount of money is given away every year to induce young men to spend over three years of very hard study upon subjects which are of no direct use to them in after-life. The indirect use may be granted. Several speakers at Cambridge were extremely eloquent upon the utility of mathematical habits of thought in acquiring a knowledge of political economy or even law. But we presume that, if it were not for the very strong artificial stimulants of fellowships, very few men would think of devoting three years

to the study of mathematics as a preparation for going to the bar. Assuming that the best mathematicians make the best lawyers, it is still rather a heavy tax to pay, and some bold sceptics might even doubt the absolute truth of the maxim. Of course, if a man devoted three years to any kind of hard intellectual study, we may perhaps assume that his mind would probably be the better for it; but the ignorant public can hardly see the necessity that the study should be one so extremely remote from any practical interest. Now, without entering the general question, those great laws of supply and demand, which are so frequently and ignorantly invoked, have the most practical bearing upon this question. People want fellowships and probably always will, and a certain number of men will always come to the Universities for them. But people care very little for mathematical or classical knowledge in itself, and, although the prestige of which we have spoken will probably still cling to such knowledge, there are other kinds of learning which are continually rising in reputation. If the University should resolutely refuse to supply these, it is more and more thrown back upon the one attraction that it will pay you for coming to it. This, we are of opinion, is not exactly a creditable position for a great University. Its students should be attracted by the rewards it offers in some measure; but perhaps it would be as well if they were, to some extent, attracted by the prospect of learning something. The class which is so attracted is, at present, we fancy, singularly scanty.

The prospect of obtaining a fellowship is, however, now, and must for long be the great mainspring of the University system of instruction, and it is in connection with this that classics and mathematics have their most undoubted claims to superiority over all other studies. For the great necessity of the University is to have perfectly fair and accurate examinations—accurate, that is, in the sense of being an accurate test of a man's abilities. The extent to which this desirable object has been hitherto secured at Cambridge is remarkable in itself and extremely honourable to the liberality and intelligence of the governing bodies. The art of examination has been carried to a pitch of refinement which is probably hardly known anywhere else. But it is very doubtful whether any other subjects would afford such a fair and searching race-course. Most certainly they have not at present been made to do so. The reason of this great superiority is evident. In order to examine in any such subject as history, or even as one of the natural sciences, it is necessary to test the candidate's recollection of a vast number of facts. This opens at once a door to all the rules of cramming, if the examination is narrowly restricted, and if the examination is allowed to range over a large part of the science it immensely increases the uncertainty of the result. In the next place, it is very difficult in such subjects to test the power of original investigation so accurately as can be done by mathematical problems, or to find an equivalent for the accurate gauge of a man's familiarity with a language afforded by translations either into or from it. It may very well be doubted whether it would ever be possible to make such a severe scrutiny into a man's acquaintance with geology, for example, or chemistry, by means of a written examination. We are quite certain that it has, at any rate, never yet been done.

The result, then, of all our remarks is, that Cambridge is so far perfectly justified in our opinion for not having done more at present. We hope, moreover, that any progress towards introducing any new studies may continue to be cautious and careful. Certainly, no one can say that it has not been so till now, and possibly no one expects any very rash movement on the part of the University for the future. We should in particular extremely regret to see any falling-off in the strictness of the examination or of the distribution of rewards. But, at the same time, we agree so far with the scientific grumblers that the University ought to do its best, and can do more than it hitherto has towards encouraging science. It surely takes a very low view of its position when its teachers become a mere examining board to determine who is to have fellowships, and when it looks contemptuously upon every study that cannot be directly utilized as a sensitive balance to weigh the abilities of those who compete. It is a fact, that in many respects the favourite studies of the University have been cut down and docked to fit them for this rather undignified office. It is too much the fashion to look upon the study as a perfectly secondary matter, and the distribution of certain emoluments as the real object of the existence of the University. We hope, however, that a better policy will be followed, and that Cambridge, by a liberal policy towards scientific professors and their wants, and by encouraging scientific studies as far as experience proves it to be practicable, will show that it is something more than a big machine for distributing prizes to overgrown schoolboys; that it will justify its claims to be at the head of the education of the country, and to be a centre of men who pursue science in a really elevated spirit.

THE PAST WEEK.

THE publication, as an appendix to President Lincoln's Message, of a bulky volume of despatches and letters from the American diplomatic agents at the courts of Europe, has disclosed more than one incident of a disagreeable kind. Mr. Cassius Clay, for instance, who represented the Federal Government at St. Petersburg in January last, presumed to suggest to Mr. Seward that men and money should be sent into Canada, Ireland, and India, to stir up revolt against the perfidious aristocratic empire of Great Britain. It must, however, be remembered that this was written at a time when there seemed to be an imminent risk of war, arising out of the Trent affair, between this country and the United States. Another incident is Mr. Adams's

report of a conversation he had with Lord Russell, in October, about Mr. Gladstone's speech at Newcastle. He told Lord Russell that he had thought of packing up to start homewards, or "that his attention had lately been called somewhat suddenly to the consideration of the condition of his travelling equipage, in certain possible contingencies which at one moment seemed to approach more nearly than he liked;" but that the speech of Sir G. C. Lewis had done much to set the balance once more even. Lord Russell, of course, assured him that Mr. Gladstone, who had evidently been much misunderstood, had his own opinions of the struggle in America, and might express them, like any other Englishman, in his public addresses; but that Lord Palmerston and other members of the Government regretted that speech, and it did not justify any inferences of a disposition in the Government to adopt a new policy. Mr. Adams replied that such speeches from leading English statesmen would tend to increase the great irritation already felt in America, on account of the unfavourable tone of popular feeling in England, where he had observed a regular and steady decline of goodwill towards the United States; and he feared lest the influences now brought to bear on public opinion here should have the worst effects upon the relations between the two countries. Baron Brunow, the Russian ambassador, did his best to convince Mr. Adams that her Majesty's Government intend faithfully to adhere to their neutral policy; but Mr. Adams seems to have been not more than half convinced,—though Lord Russell, willing to soothe him, said he thought that, in most popular meetings throughout England, the majority would sympathize with the United States; adding that Mr. Gladstone, for his own part, was not disinclined to correct the misinterpretation of his speech, and to explain what he meant by it. Mr. Adams had previously reported that it was the darling desire of the governing classes in England that America should be divided. Mr. Seward, in a letter to Mr. Adams, last February, endeavoured to remove the prejudice in England against the Union cause, founded on the notion that the existing Federal Government was not really unfavourable to perpetuating slavery. He said that President Lincoln's Administration was elected for its declared opposition to the extension of slavery; and although the war had been waged not against slavery, but in defence of the Union, it must act as an emancipating crusade. On the other hand, if the Southern confederacy prevailed, slavery would be confirmed, until it provoked a social revolution, attended with such horrors as England, France, and all the world, must lament to witness. The Federal administration, seeking to confine slavery within its existing bounds, instead of letting it spread over all the unoccupied parts of the continent, pursued an object worthy of practical men. It had also decreed emancipation within the Federal district, taken measures to suppress the African slave trade, received negroes escaping into the Federal camps, and recognized the citizenship of all men without respect of colour. In September, after Mr. Lincoln's emancipation decree, Mr. Seward wrote again, observing that if the President had delayed until now to declare the slaves free throughout the rebel states, it was not as a question of morals or humanity that he had to regard it, but as a question of military exigency, depending on time and circumstances. This decree, however, had not come too late; and it could no longer have been deferred. The interests of humanity are now, says Mr. Seward, identified with the cause of the Federal Union. There is, moreover, some more correspondence about the *Alabama*, or Steamer 290, equipped by the Confederates at Liverpool; the upshot of which, as noticed last week, is that Mr. Adams has been instructed to claim from the British Government an indemnity for the loss of American vessels captured by her. Mr. Dayton, at Paris, relates his conversations with the Emperor, and with M. Thouvenel, about the intended offer of mediation; and states that, in March last, he told the Emperor that, if France and England did not acknowledge the South as belligerents, the rebellion would collapse at once. The Emperor replied that the principal reason why the belligerent rights of the South were granted was, that European statesmen believed the North could never succeed in bringing the two sections together again. With regard to the French doings in Mexico, Mr. Seward insisted that they should not raise up or maintain an anti-Republican or anti-American government in that country, and France has disclaimed any such design.

By the last mail, which left New York on the 15th December, we have some fresh news of the war. The Federals, under General Burnside, have taken possession of the city of Fredericksburg, half-way between Washington and Richmond; but the Confederate army of General Lee still holds the fortified lines beyond the city. It seems that the main body of Burnside's army crossed the Rappahannock on the 12th, having constructed several bridges beforehand, and occupied the south side of the river and Fredericksburg. The Confederates had two strong lines of batteries, the first one mile in the rear of Fredericksburg, and the second one mile in the rear of the first. They opened fire on the 12th from their first line of batteries upon the Federals who were in Fredericksburg, and upon those who were crossing the river, but the Federal batteries along the banks of the river silenced them in half an hour. The Confederates, however, concentrated their forces, and early on the morning of the 13th instant, in the midst of a dense fog, General Reynolds, commanding the left of the Federal army, advanced and engaged the Confederate infantry. The Confederates immediately opened fire from their batteries. Two hours later the fog disappeared, and two divisions of infantry charged the Confederate position behind the city. The Federals experienced a check. Having been reinforced, they again charged the enemy, but were again repulsed. From that time heavy firing continued on both sides till dark. About 40,000 of the Federals were engaged. They succeeded in driving the Confederates about one mile. The latter then attacked them, but were repulsed with the loss of 400 prisoners. When night came the Federals slept on the ground where the battle had been fought. The Federal Generals Jackson and Bayard were killed. Five Federal generals were wounded. The Confederates continued to throw shells into Fredericksburg until night. No battle occurred on the 14th. The Confederates were occupied in extending their works, and strengthening their position.

A battle has occurred at Fayetteville, Arkansas, described as between 7,000 Federals and 24,000 Confederates. The fight is said to have lasted all day, until the Federals were reinforced by 5,000 men, who fell upon the Confederate rear. The Confederates then retreated across the Boston Mountains—the Federals remaining in possession of the field.

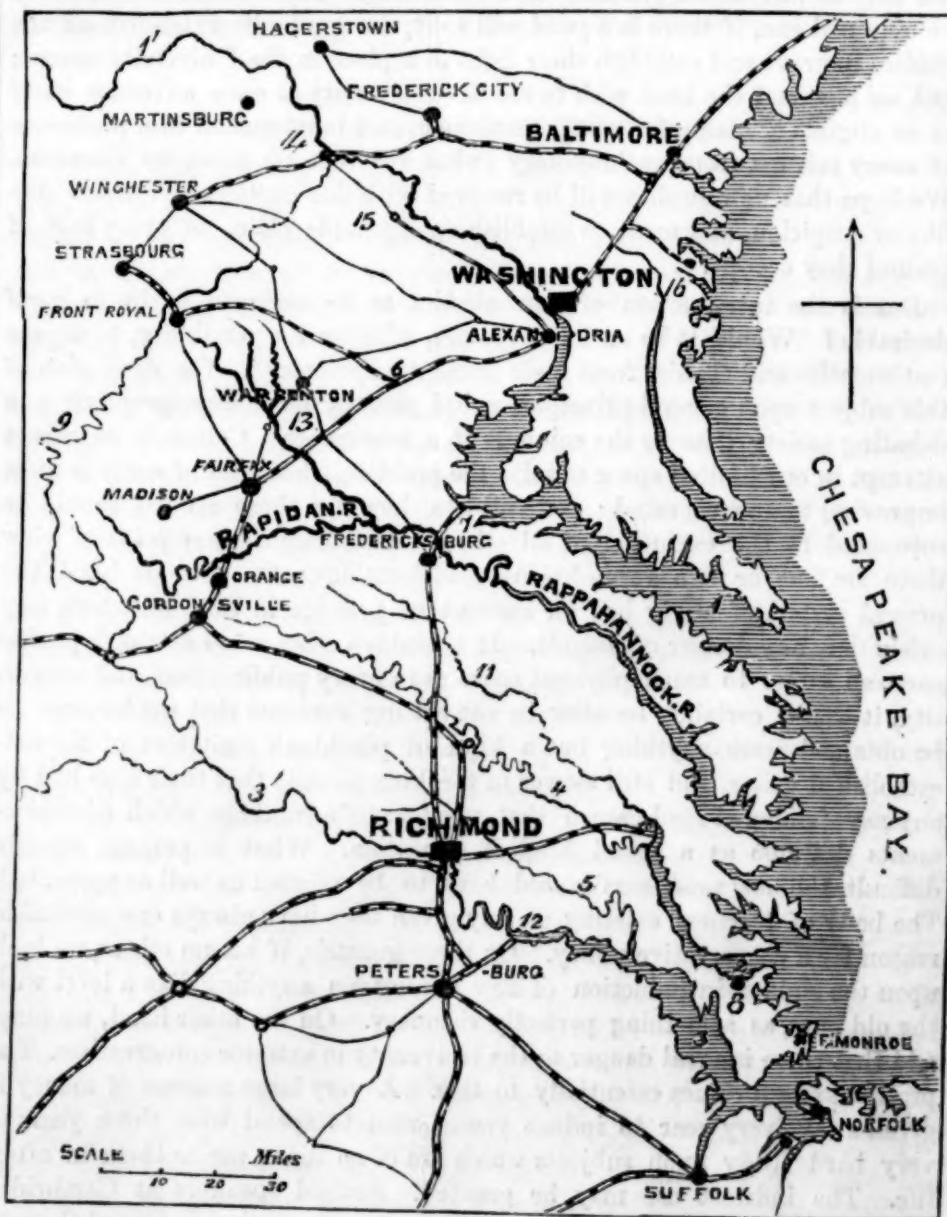
Lieutenant Maury has arrived in London, from the Southern States of America. He writes to the *Times*, to say that they will never return to

political union with the Yankees. Their whole people, men, women, and children, glory in the Secession cause, which has been consecrated by their best blood. He observes that Mr. Lincoln's offer to pay for the gradual abolition of slavery is a desperate bid for the South to come back, and a practical admission that their forcible subjugation is impossible, since the Northern people will not comply with the militia draught or the Tax Bill, necessary to carry on the war. Let the South stand firm, and this is the beginning of the end.

The vacant throne of Greece is still the most urgent of European questions. It is asserted by *La France* that it has been offered to Prince Louis of Hesse, the husband of our Princess Alice, and refused by him. The Greek Assembly, or Synod, was opened at Athens on Monday last. There is now no doubt that on the 4th of December an agreement was signed, by which the British Government and that of Russia promised each other not to accept the throne of Greece for any member of either of their reigning houses; the Duke of Leuchtenberg and Prince Alfred being equally thereby excluded. It is further stated that England has proposed to the other European powers to hold a conference for the modification of the treaty by which the Ionian Islands were put under an English Protectorate; but that England will make the cession of those islands to Greece only upon the condition that Greece shall maintain a monarchical form of government, and respect the treaties which limit her territorial extension on the Turkish side. *La France* says that two of the Great Powers refuse their consent to the cession of the islands to Greece, and the *Journal de St. Petersburg* has an intimation of something to the same effect.

The King of Prussia is still receiving and replying to the addresses of servile deputations on his late usurpation of the taxing prerogative of Parliament. He accuses the majority in the Lower House of a design to deprive the Crown of the command of the army,—to make it "a Parliament's army" instead of an army at the back of the king; and he appeals to the nation not to be led astray by party manoeuvres. He does not promise, however, to summon a new Parliament. The Prince and Princess Frederick William, after staying two or three days at Vienna on their return homewards from Italy, have arrived at Berlin. Garibaldi is gone to his hermitage at Caprera. The Pope's friends at Paris talk of his making some reforms in the Government of Rome. The Italians, after Garibaldi's example, are subscribing to relieve the distress in Lancashire, while the Pope sends a subscription for the relief of similar distress at Rouen.

The Viceroy of India has written to the Lord Mayor of London to say there is a surplus left of the fund which was subscribed in England for the relief of India in the famine two years ago, and that if the Lord Mayor, on behalf of the English subscribers, thinks proper, he may draw £20,000 of it for the relief of our Lancashire distress. The amount of subscriptions paid in to the Central Executive Committee at Manchester was, up to last week, £431,000, and the balance in hand was £267,000. Mr. Farnall reports that in the afflicted district there are 269,580 persons receiving parochial relief, besides whom 190,794 are relieved by the charitable fund committees. There is a diminution, however, of 3,400 in the number of paupers. In addition to the fund dispensed by the Executive Committee at Manchester, the Lord Mayor's Mansion House Committee has sent down to Lancashire and Cheshire, in the nine months since it was established, no less than £251,000. Previous to adjourning for a fortnight over Christmas at their last week's meeting,



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| 1. Potomac River. | 6. Manassas Junction. | 12. Harrison's Landing. |
| 2. York River. | 7. Aquia Creek. | 13. Rappahannock River. |
| 3. James River. | 8. Yorktown. | 14. Harper's Ferry. |
| 4. Pamunkey River. | 9. Shenandoah River. | 15. Leesburg. |
| 5. Chickahominy River. | 11. Mataponi River. | 16. Annapolis. |

the London committee apportioned to the local committees grants amounting to £40,000, besides voting £16,000 or more to provide a Christmas dinner for all the cotton operatives, estimated at 480,000, in the distressed districts. Meetings have been held and collections made in all parts of the country. At the Cheshire county meeting, held at Stockport, the Marquis of Westminster took the lead with a contribution of £2,000; the Bishop of Chester, Lord Stanley of Alderley, the Earl of Stamford and Warrington, and the county members, also took part in this good work. Resolutions expressing deep sympathy with the suffering workpeople, as well as recommending continued efforts for their relief, were readily passed. At the Kerry county meeting, the famous O'Donoghue moved an amendment that Ireland's money should be spent for the relief of Ireland herself; but this ungenerous counsel found no support.

Mr. William Backwell, a manufacturer of artificial stone at Phoenix Wharf, who was a contractor for making one of the Italian railways, has been arrested by Sergeant Haydon, of the London detective police, at Arona, in Italy, and brought home in custody on several charges of fraud and embezzlement, to the amount of nearly £200,000.

Mr. George Ruxton, the Liverpool shipowner, who was acquitted the other day on his trial at Liverpool, for conspiring to defraud the underwriters by wilfully destroying the vessels he had insured, has been committed for trial in London, on another charge, along with James Birtie, captain of a vessel which was insured by the "Universal Marine Insurance Company," in Cornhill. This vessel was chartered in November, 1860, for a voyage from Cardiff to Loando, on the coast of Africa, with a cargo which was insured at £1,000; the bills of lading set forth that the cargo included a variety of goods to that value, but it is alleged that only about a tenth of that value was actually put on board; the vessel was lost, having, as Ruxton and the captain said, been struck by a heavy sea, and sprung a leak, so that the crew were obliged to leave her; and the money was paid on their representation that the goods mentioned in the bills of lading were actually lost with the ship.

A commission has been appointed to inquire into the working of the Acts on transportation and penal servitude, and the manner in which the sentences are carried out. The Commissioners are Earl Grey, Lord Naas, Lord Cranworth, Lord Chelmsford, Sir John Pakington, Mr. Walpole, Mr. Henley, Mr. Bouverie, the Lord Chief Justice, Mr. Waddington of the Home Office, the Recorder of London, the O'Connor Don, and Mr. Childers, M.P. Sir Walter Crofton, late Director of Irish Convict Prisons, has lectured on this subject at an institution at Bristol. He showed that, the ticket-of-leave system having been applied in this country in a most careless manner, and without that safeguard with which it was formerly accompanied in the colonies;—namely, the supervision of the liberated convict and his recommitment to prison in case of misconduct—we need not wonder at the increased frequency of crime. It was almost incredible, that while thousands of convicts were set at liberty, the conditions of the ticket-of-leave were allowed to remain a dead letter; and the recommendation that they should be obliged, at stated periods, to report themselves to the police authorities, was entirely neglected. In Ireland, on the contrary, the ticket-of-leave system had been so carried out as to protect the public, and exercise a salutary control over the criminal. The Irish system involved a suitable training, in prison, to prepare the convicts for their discharge, and lead them to gain their livelihood by labour; and it made a return to the pursuits of crime more hazardous for them, by keeping them under police supervision, aided by the use of photographic portraits, and a regular correspondence between all the local police authorities and governors of gaols. Sir Walter Crofton thinks we ought not to look to the old system of transportation as a remedy for the defects of our system, though emigration to Western Australia may be allowed to the best-behaved of the convicts. It is impossible, after all, by any sort of removal, to get rid of the bulk of our criminal population; the course to be adopted is rather to surround the commission of crime with every possible obstruction, and make the stringency of punishment be felt. The Bristol meeting agreed to memorialize our Government in favour of Sir W. Crofton's plan. At Glasgow, Sir Archibald Alison has lectured on the same topic; but he recommends transportation.

The book we lately noticed on "Female Life in Prison" told us of the epidemic that seizes, now and then, upon that unhappy class of women who for their crimes are confined in our penal establishments, provoking them to "break out" in acts of violence and indecency beyond even the boldness of the male ruffian. A scene of this kind has just been enacted rather on a large scale, by three hundred female inmates of the convict prison at Perth. It was on Sunday, and during service in the chapel, that they rose defying the warders, with shouts and yells and ferocious threats. One of the warders was actually knocked down, and very roughly used. The gaol authorities, however, to prevent their escaping and letting loose the male prisoners, contrived to lock them up in the chapel, and sent for a body of armed police, supported by a detachment of the 25th regiment of foot. The women were frightened by firing a few pistol-shots over their heads, and after several hours of disorder were taken back to their cells.

Five days in the Court of Queen's Bench at Guildhall have been taken up with the trial of an action for an assault and false imprisonment brought by Mr. E. W. Hudson, a director of the "Waller Gold Mining Company," of which Mr. Digby Seymour was chairman, against Sir F. Slade, Mr. Bovill, Mr. Bagshaw, and Sir W. Alexander, Benchers of the Middle Temple. In their investigation of Mr. Digby Seymour's conduct, in July last year, the Benchers more than once had occasion to examine Mr. Hudson as a witness called on Mr. Seymour's behalf. They also obtained from Mr. Brown, who had been solicitor to the Company, a "manifold" letter-book, containing the copies which Mr. Hudson had made of various private letters that had passed between himself and the secretary, engineer, or manager of the Company, at the time, from 1853 to 1855, when Mr. Hudson was a director and Mr. Digby Seymour chairman of the Company. Amongst them was a letter of the 7th of November, 1854, from Mr. Hudson to the engineer in America, desiring "advices" and "reports," with a view, as soon as possible, to the declaration of a dividend, which it appeared was afterwards—in 1855—declared and paid chiefly out of borrowed money. And there was a letter of August, 1855, containing an allusion to "letters which would do—the promoters to all eternity." A year or two afterwards the company "collapsed," and when Mr. Hudson had left the direction, he left the book at the

office. When in 1861 the Benchers instituted the inquiry into the case of Mr. Seymour, one of the charges related to his conduct with regard to this company, and the deposit of certain shares of a Mr. Robertson, as to which his defence was that they were deposited by his consent to help to raise money to meet certain joint liabilities of the directors on account of certain "operations" on the share-market. The Benchers being desired by Mr. Seymour to obtain any documents they could bearing upon the case, they had got this book from Mr. Brown, who, nevertheless, told them that it was a private letter-book, never intended to see the light. As the inquiry went on, Mr. Hudson was called by Mr. Digby Seymour to give his evidence before the Benchers on the 8th of July; when the Benchers, having the letter-book before them, proceeded to examine him thereupon, referring him to the letters, and desiring him to read them in order to test his statements. With that view it was handed backwards and forwards to him several times, and he read letters therein during the examination. On that occasion he did not claim the book as his nor object to its use; on the contrary, alluding to one of the letters in it, he said it had been machine-copied into a book of the company, and that he did not object to any of his letters being referred to. He agreed, at the close of the examination, to attend again next evening, on the 9th, and did so attend. When he came in, however, having asked for the book, in order, as he said, to offer an explanation, he put it in his pocket and declared his resolution to keep it. He thought he had the best right to it, or (as he said) that it was his private letter-book; but Mr. Seymour, who was present, desired him to restore it. He refused, however, to do so. The Benchers then ordered their officers to take it by force, which they tried, but failed, to do, and the police being called in, the result was, that the plaintiff and the police went to the station, and two of the Benchers attended and preferred a charge of "unlawful possession" of the book. This charge the superintendent of police refused to take, and the plaintiff was at once allowed to depart with the book in his possession. This, however, was the plaintiff's case: that the book was his private letter-book, and that he had been given in charge for stealing it. He was confirmed by the two policemen who came into the chamber. But as to what took place at the station, the evidence of the sergeant and superintendent, and the evidence of the charge-sheet, was, that the charge was for "unlawfully taking" the book; apparently under the impression that this, under one of the London Police Acts, justified a criminal charge. The Benchers' case was (admitting the assault) that the plaintiff had not been given into charge, but had gone voluntarily to the police-station, at the suggestion of the police, with a view to the settlement of the matter there. Some of the evidence, describing the scuffle that took place in the Parliament Hall of the Middle Temple, was rather amusing. The result of the trial, however, was, that the jury could not agree, and were discharged without a verdict.

Mr. Layard has made a speech to his constituents in Southwark, adverting, amongst other topics, to the state and prospects of China. He said it had been a great object with our government to obtain direct communication with the Emperor of China and his ministers. That object had been accomplished by the late war. Prince Kung, having succeeded in putting down the war party in China, now wished for the assistance of England to restore peace and good order in that vast empire, that its resources might be improved, and that it might continue in profitable intercourse with our own and every other nation. This was the service for which Captain Sherard Osborn was engaged; and in the first instance, the Taeping rebels or banditti must be subdued. With regard to America, he justified all the conduct of our government, remarking that they had no right to take into consideration the question of slavery, or the causes of quarrel between North and South. In Dorsetshire, Mr. Ker Seymour and Mr. Portman have been speaking in a liberal-conservative tone at an agricultural dinner. Mr. Mure, the member for Buteshire, has spoken on the current topics at Rothsay. But the Christmas week is not the time for much political eloquence.

A heavy gale, of three days' duration, has swept over the metropolis, and done considerable damage both on land and on the river, blowing down the telegraph wires in the district of Whitechapel. The shipping at the mouth of the Thames suffered much, and a great quantity of ship timber has come on shore at Ramsgate, where the Coast-guard had a narrow escape of being swept away, the waves washing over the station, and the water dashing down their chimneys and extinguishing the fires. A brig foundered off Great Yarmouth, but the crew were saved; more than one wreck is reported from the eastern coast, but without much loss of life; at Liverpool, in one case, the crew, saving one man, perished. One or two more explosions of boilers and collieries, which killed several men and boys; also a railway accident near Stockport, where several empty carriages were smashed, while the passengers in the train were severely bruised, complete the disasters of this week.

Reviews of Books.

TRACTATUS THEOLOGICO-POLITICUS.*

BARUCH SPINOZA, the son of a small Jew trader whom religious persecution had driven from his native country, Portugal, was born at Amsterdam on the 24th of November, 1632. His talents were from his earliest boyhood remarked, and he was brought up by the Jewish rabbins in all their learning. Dissatisfied with this learning, he turned from it to the study of philosophy, above all, the philosophy of Descartes, and made no secret of having abandoned the traditions of his Jewish masters. After vainly attempting to retain by bribes their promising disciple, these masters tried to silence him by assassination. The attempt failed; but Spinoza long showed the cloak which had been pierced by the assassin's dagger. He was publicly excommunicated in the Portuguese synagogue at Amsterdam about the year 1660. He then changed his Hebrew name of Baruch for the Latin name of Benedict, but he never was baptized or joined any religious communion. After a life of exemplary simplicity, moderation, and virtue, he died of consumption at the Hague, on the 21st of February, 1677, at the age of forty-four. His most celebrated work, his "Ethics," was published after his death; the

* Tractatus Theologico-Politicus: A Critical Inquiry into the History, Purpose, and Authenticity of the Hebrew Scriptures. By Benedict de Spinoza. From the Latin; with an Introduction and Notes by the Editor. London: Trübner & Co.

works which he published in his life-time were not numerous, the only one of great importance among them being the "Tractatus Theologico-Politicus," now translated into English for the first time.

Spinoza himself did not design this treatise for the general public, but for the philosophic few. When it was proposed in his life-time to bring out a Dutch translation of it, he expressed, in a letter which has been preserved, his objections to giving to such a work this kind of publicity. This is a point, however, on which an author cannot hope to have his own way. It is the fame of his book which, in the end, settles the question whether it shall be translated or not; and the fame, if not of the "Tractatus Theologico-Politicus," at least of Spinoza, is such as to make one wonder that this book should not sooner have appeared in English. But, in truth, over Spinoza and his works there hangs a cloud—the cloud of a heterodoxy, bold, boundless, uncompromising; so bold, so boundless, and so uncompromising that his enemies have not hesitated to give to it the terrible name of Atheism. This explains the long reserve of English translators and English publishers. Recent events, however, have powerfully called public attention to critical examinations of Scripture, and at length an Englishman, bolder than the rest, takes a candle and invites his countrymen to follow him to the cavern of Spinoza, and see with their own eyes this famous Jew's "Critical Inquiry into the History, Purpose, and Authenticity of the Hebrew Scriptures."

He does well. Whatever Spinoza was, he was not an Atheist: "the more we know God, the more do we become masters of ourselves, and find in this knowledge our rest and our salvation." That is his doctrine from the first line of his works to the last. Unorthodox he is, but to that the Bishop of Natal has accustomed us; and a public which devours the bishop's "Critical Inquiry" may as well read Spinoza's also. It will even find in the latter, if not so much arithmetic, at least a more interesting strain of criticism than in the former. "The religion of all the great churches of Christendom is a religion which is not that of the Bible; it is a huge gloss put upon the Bible by generations of metaphysical theologians; the Bible, honestly and intelligently read, gives us a religion quite different and far simpler." Such is the thesis which Spinoza, with sincere earnestness, wonderful acuteness, and vast learning unfolds in his treatise, and the thesis is undeniably an interesting one.

We therefore commend the English editor for his design of at last lighting us to Spinoza. But we are sorry to say that the candle he takes with him is quite insufficient. In other words, he does not know the Latin language; and the best intentions will not enable a man who does not know that, to guide us to the knowledge of a book written in Latin. No man, it is said, is aware of his own ignorance; so, for producing this most imperfect translation, its maker, perhaps, is not to be blamed; but he certainly does himself no credit by publishing it. It is remarkable how often work of this kind—the journeyman-work of literature, as it may be called, the work of translating, the work of compiling, the work of dictionary-making—is ill done in this country. Probably the cause lies principally in that which is one of the distinctions we, as Britons, are so proud of—our want of a National Institute or Academy.

To be convinced that the English editor is incompetent to translate a Latin book, one need not go beyond his version of Spinoza's preface and first chapter. We suppose it is indispensable to perform the ungrateful task of giving specimens of his mistakes. We shall do so with the utmost brevity consistent with making his incompetency clear to all fit judges.

In the fourteenth section of his preface, Spinoza says:—

"Miratus sepe fui, quod homines, qui se Christianam religionem profiteri jactant, hoc est, amorem, gaudium, pacem, continentiam et erga omnes fidem, plus quam iniquo animo certarent et acerbissimum in invicem odium quotidie exercerent, ita ut facilius ex his, quam illis, fides uniuscujusque noscatur."

This the English editor renders as follows:—

"I have often wondered within myself that men who boast of the great advantages they enjoy under the Christian dispensation—the peace, the joy they experience, the brotherly love they feel towards all in its exercise—should, nevertheless, contend with so much acrimony and show such intolerance and unappeasable hatred towards one another. If faith had to be inferred from action rather than profession, it would be impossible to say to what sect or creed the majority of mankind belonged."

That is, to say the least, a very unsatisfactory style of translating; one is left in some doubt, however, whether the translator cannot or will not be accurate; whether he really cannot seize the literal sense of the Latin words, or whether it is only his natural vagueness of mind and diffuseness of style which make him paraphrase his author thus loosely. But in the next extract he leaves us in no doubt. Spinoza, speaking of theologians who have, he asserts, foisted into the Christian religion the speculations of the Aristotelians and Platonists, says:—

"Fateor, eos nunquam satis mirari potuisse Scripturæ profundissima mysteria; attamen præter Aristotelicorum vel Platoniorum speculationes nihil docuisse video, atque his, ne gentiles sectari viderentur, Scripturam accommodaverunt. Non satis his fuit cum Græcis insanire, sed prophetas cum iisdem deliravisse voluerunt."

This the English editor turns into the following:—

"I confess, that whilst with them I have never been able sufficiently to admire the unfathomed mysteries of Scripture, I have still found them giving utterance to nothing but Aristotelian and Platonic speculations, artfully dressed up and cunningly accommodated to Holy Writ, lest the speakers should show themselves too plainly to belong to the sect of the Grecian heathens. Nor was it enough for these men to discourse with the Greeks; they have further taken to raving with the Hebrew prophets."

This almost takes one's breath away, indeed; but it leaves one perfectly free from doubt as to its author's knowledge of Latin. No one who, in youth or age, had really learned the tongue of "the sect of the Latin heathens,"—no one who had ever walked for six months in the ways of *Grammar* and *Delectus*,—could possibly have imagined, however vague his mind or diffuse his style, that by saying, "I confess, that whilst with them I have never been able sufficiently to admire the unfathomable mysteries of Scripture," he was rendering, "Fateor eos nunquam satis mirari potuisse Scripturæ profundissima mysteria;" or that, "Nor was it enough for these men to discourse with the Greeks; they have further taken to raving with the Hebrew pro-

phets," was a translation of "Non satis his fuit cum Græcis insanire, sed prophetas cum iisdem deliravisse voluerunt." And this in a passage really as clear as daylight, and of which neither the words nor the meaning contain the slightest difficulty. "I confess," says Spinoza, "they (the theologians) have never been able sufficiently to profess their admiration of the profound mysteries of Scripture, but I cannot see that they have taught anything but speculations of the Aristotelians and Platonists, and to these, that they might not seem to be followers of the heathen, they have accommodated Scripture. They have not been content to go mad with the Greeks themselves; they will have it that the prophets have raved with them also."

After this it is almost a waste of time to point out that "than which I find nothing more reprehensible" is not the English of "quo mihi quidem nihil magis ridiculum videtur;" or that "plunged in wickedness and sin" is not the English of "illuvie peccatorum inquinatos et sterquiliniis quasi immersos." It is wearisome and useless to multiply instances of an inaccuracy which shows itself in every page, and which is so astounding as positively to make one rub one's eyes. The English editor is apparently a man familiar with philosophical speculations and capable enough of understanding Spinoza's thought when he can get hold of it; but whether he gets hold of it or no is all a chance, so ignorant is he of Latin. We turned to a passage in the fourth chapter, where Spinoza's thought cannot be quite rightly seized without attention and a clear head; we own we were surprised to find how well our editor got on for a sentence or two; able to follow an intricate train of thought he certainly is, but at any moment his ignorance of Latin may throw him completely out. He can imagine that when Spinoza says, "illa revelatio respectu solius Adami et propter solum defectum ejus cognitionis lex fuit, Deusque quasi legislator aut princeps (that revelation in respect of Adam only and by reason only of his defect of knowledge was a law, and God as it were a legislator and sovereign)," he means, "the commandment in question is to be regarded as made in respect of Adam alone; it was a law only by reason of his defect of apprehension, and God stood to him in the relation of a legislator or prince to his people!" When Spinoza says that God told Adam "bonum agere et querere sub ratione boni, et non quatenus contrarium est malo (to do and seek good as such, and not as the contrary of evil)," his English editor can imagine that he means, "God told Adam to do good and to proceed under the guidance of the good in itself, and not as it is the opposite of evil!" And when Spinoza comes to the very cardinal sentence of his whole treatise,—the sentence in which he declares what it is that revelation does really tell us which we could not have known without revelation,—when he says, "non possumus lumine naturali percipere quod simplex obedientia via ad salutem sit, sed sola revelatio docet, id ex singulari Dei gratiâ, quam ratione assequi non possumus, fieri (by the light of nature alone we cannot make out that simple obedience is a way to salvation, but revelation alone teaches us that this is brought to pass by God's singular grace, which grace we with our reason cannot follow up)," his English editor makes him say, "we do not perceive by the light we bring with us into the world that simple obedience is the way of life, whilst revelation alone, by the singular grace of God, teaches this, which we could not learn by our reason."

In addition to his ignorance of Latin the English editor has a perplexed style, which makes him very unfit to be the translator of a book like Spinoza's treatise. Certainly it is hard to write well this noble but recalcitrant English language of ours; we are all privileged to write it somewhat badly, but this translator abuses all imaginable privilege of writing badly. In utter astonishment, we have sometimes fancied he must be a foreigner; but he cannot be a Frenchman, for his movement of mind is not in the least French; and no German (besides that a German is generally a painstaking man, who, if he has to translate a Latin book, duly learns his *Latin Grammar* first) could ever have thought that Schleiermacher, by "Opfert mit mir ehrerbietig den Manen des heiligen verstossenen Spinoza!" meant "Sacrifice with me a lock of hair to the manes of the pure and misunderstood Spinoza!" And besides his ignorance of Latin and his perplexed style, he has the fault (unpardonable in a translator) of putting himself a great deal too forward by notes and observations, and of even sacrificing his author's opinions to his own. For example, Spinoza has, at the end of his eighteenth chapter, some very curious remarks on the first English revolution and the death of Charles I., in which the conduct of the popular party is severely criticised; these remarks his English editor has thought fit, as he himself informs us in a note, to "condense and somewhat modify,"—i. e., totally to alter,—because they do not agree with his own notions, because, in his opinion, "there was no wanton bloodshed during the great English revolution," and so on. What Spinoza's reader wants to know is what Spinoza thought of the English revolution, not what his editor thinks.

This, one would say, was enough; but in yet one other part of an editor's true duty to his author does this translator fail. It is the highest and most difficult part of an editor's duty, certainly; but no man who cared for Spinoza should have brought this treatise before the English public unless he could discharge it. We mean the duty of skilfully introducing an author around whose name there hangs, justly or unjustly, a certain odium; of presenting him favourably, of removing groundless prejudices against him, of conciliating the reader's mind to him, of securing for him a good hearing. Spinoza's English editor does the very contrary of all this. He presents Spinoza to the English public by means of an introduction, which is just calculated to set the English public still more against him, an introduction filled with his own speculations about religion; speculations which will certainly be unpalatable to the general English reader, and which we assure that reader (assuming for a moment the function which an author's editor should himself discharge) are all of them the translator's thunder, not Spinoza's. We cannot, however, hope to do away with the unfavourable bias with which many readers, after going through this introduction, will approach Spinoza. The editor has all the dreadful stock-in-trade of the regular British "advanced liberal" in religion and politics: "in this favoured land we have long attained to a salutary conviction of the unmixt advantages that accrue from the open discussion of political and social questions;" "credulity and mystery have lost their hold upon the educated mind of the nineteenth century, and he who has made any progress in reasonable, as distinguished from dogmatic, religion, finds no satisfaction for the aspirations of his spirit towards the infinite in ritual observance, in parrot-like iteration of set formulæ, and in a mendacious prostration," &c.; "it is notorious that the zealous and perfectly sincere professor—to say nothing

of crimes of far deeper dye perpetrated by the fanatic—the perfectly sincere professor, we say, has occasionally proved the spoiler of the widow and the orphan confided to his care; the forger of deeds that made innocent children beggars; the selfish sybarite, who consumed in sensual indulgence the hard-won earnings of the labouring poor; “Spinoza had, indeed, a great contempt for the vulgar. . . . but in the course of two centuries the world has advanced in its notions of what constitutes real vulgarity and true learning, and has decided that neither one nor other necessarily inheres in the possession, or in the want of Greek and Latin.” As to the last of these extracts, we say that no march of intellect and civilization can ever make Latin and Greek unnecessary possessions for people who translate Latin and Greek books, whatever they may make them for the rest of the world. As to all the other extracts, we say that there breathes from them just that odour of Cato-street, which makes the general British public choose rather to think wrong with the late amiable Archbishop Howley, than to think right with their new enlighteners.

If any one likes to buy this publication, of course he can buy it; only let him be well assured that when he has got it he has not got Spinoza's *Tractatus Theologico-Politicus*. If he is absolutely bent on passing a little time over this work, for change of air after the Bishop of Natal's *Critical Inquiry*, he may read it in M. Saisset's French version. Let him bear in mind, however, that M. Saisset has a religion of his own in his writing-table drawer, and that he cries down Spinoza's wares in order to leave the market free for this ware of his own. Or he may read it in the German version of M. Auerbach. Or (better still) let him try and read it in the original Latin; Spinoza's Latin is not classical Latin certainly, but it is very clear, massive, and characteristic; and, for all but scholars, far easier reading than any classical Latin. If he knows neither Latin, French, nor German, he must wait for a proper English translation. The present English translation let no man buy.

We part from this book with sincere resentment. This publication is discreditable to all concerned in it; advantage has been taken of the curiosity which the Bishop of Natal's book has excited about Biblical criticism, to try and palm off upon the British public an article which is, in the translator's own language, most “mendacious.” And we have been compelled to perform a task which is revolting to us, and which is not the task we had thought to perform. We had thought to speak of a great thinker and his philosophy; and, instead of that, we find ourselves with these hangman's hands. What right has any editor or publisher to force the peaceful haters of bloodshed to become butchers against their will, under penalty, if they hold back, of seeing a heinous literary sin committed; of seeing another great author lost sight of, or else seen all wrong, in the hideous anarchy which is modern English literature?

JOSEPH LOCKE.*

THIS book is written in a silly, twaddling style which goes nigh to destroy the reader's interest in the life of the great railway engineer. Mr. Devey seems to have been personally acquainted with Locke, but beyond this he brings few qualifications to his task; he possesses a tedious habit of moralizing, which continually leads him astray, so that from the simplest statement he wanders into comments which are never striking and are frequently unsound. Still more distressing is a practice of a somewhat similar character, that of introducing into his book digressions of disproportionate length upon subjects very little connected with it. It is possible that Mr. Devey has the more freely indulged in these habits of moralizing upon the events he has to relate, and of entering upon discussions with which he has little concern, from some feeling that it was necessary to make up a goodly octavo volume. If this be so, the sooner he is stopped the better. The well-deserved success of Mr. Smiles's “*Lives of the Engineers*” will naturally produce competition, and we shall probably for some time to come receive from rival publishers a succession of biographies of every man who has ever made a bridge, a canal, or a railway. Such biographies can only be tolerable when they modestly narrate the careers of their several heroes. *Judex damnatur cum nocens absolvitur*. The critic is bound at the outset to protest that it is unnecessary in the story of the life of the designer of the *Great Eastern* to describe the construction of the Ark, or, in writing the biography of Captain Fowke, to give more than a cursory reference to the building of the Tower of Babel.

Joseph Locke was born at Attercliffe, near Sheffield, on the 9th day of August, 1805. He was the youngest son of William Locke, who had, three years before the birth of Joseph, removed from Newburn-on-the-Tyne to take charge of a colliery at Attercliffe. When William Locke was at Newburn, no less a person than George Stephenson was working in a colliery with him, and an anecdote connecting the two men does not give a favourable impression of the former. George was very desirous of learning to brake, and the brakeman, Coe, often let him attempt the task; this was strenuously opposed by other brakemen, and Locke carried his opposition so far as to stop the working of the pit when Stephenson was taking a lesson. This happened one day when the manager was on the mine; Locke was asked to explain his conduct, and said, “Young Stephenson couldn't brake, and what was more, never would learn to brake, he was so clumsy;” but the manager was of a different opinion, and ordering Locke to resume his work, the opposition ceased. It would probably be a mistake to suppose that this was pure bad feeling on the part of William Locke; it was, doubtless, the workman's professional jealousy of all indirect ways of learning a trade; the ill-feeling between him and Stephenson, if any such ever existed on the part of the latter, died away, and it was through Stephenson's kindly recollection of his former fellow-workman that Joseph Locke made his first great step in life. When Joseph was five years old his father was appointed manager of a colliery at Barnsley, and thither the family removed. Joseph Locke grew up a lively, talkative boy, and in due time was sent to the Barnsley grammar school, where he remained till he was thirteen. All that Mr. Devey appears to know of that part of Locke's life is derived from a sister and fellow-scholar, who recollects that Joseph was very idle, and got soundly flogged in consequence; but upon this slight reminiscence our author builds up a characteristic page. First, he tells us that the pretensions of the Barnsley

grammar-school to its title were in those days ridiculous; then, that what was taught was doubtless taught well; next, he tells us that Locke neglected his tasks up to the last moment, and thereupon he moans over the “brutal assaults which a more understanding age condemns and disallows;” lastly, he declares that those who best knew the Joseph Locke of manhood will be astonished to learn that this training, slight as it was, ceased at thirteen, but he immediately adds, “it might have ceased earlier without any very grave consequences.”

Meanwhile the Joseph Locke of boyhood passed into a youth of whom it must have been impossible to predicate whether he would prove a good worker or a ne'er-do-weel. We have glimpses of him from the age of thirteen to eighteen as a lad of great animal spirits and dangerous insubordination. He was first placed at Pelaw, in Durham, under Mr. Stobart, colliery-viewer for the Duke of Norfolk, but in his second year Mr. Stobart, or (Mr. Devey adds apparently without any special reason) “probably some female member of his family,” ordered Locke to ride daily with the letter-bag to the post; this was a duty which Locke's dignity could not endure, and he returned to Barnsley. His next trial was with a land-surveyor at Rochdale, whither his father drove him across Blackstone Edge in a gig hired for the purpose, but in a fortnight he was back again at Barnsley, having walked the return journey, protesting that he had been set to rock a cradle. Two pages of moralizing follow this return, and the next chapter bears the affected title, “The Clouds Disperse.” The clouds, however, did not immediately pass away, for William Locke now took his son under his own guidance, and, amongst other tasks, he was ordered to “lead” coals in a cart from house to house in Barnsley; at other times he had to take a cow to water and back again to its stall. The proud youth used to lie down in his coal-cart when he saw an acquaintance approaching, spent his pocket-money in hiring a substitute to “lead” the coal to one especial house, and as for the cow, he never got out of bed so willingly as he did one morning at five o'clock to hand her over to a purchaser. Locke spent two or three years in this fashion, when a happy chance led to a renewal of acquaintance between his father and George Stephenson. A Mr. Wilson, a Northumbrian attorney, and a friend of Stephenson's, was about to settle at Barnsley, and George gave him a letter of introduction to William Locke; in the letter Stephenson pleasantly recalled the old days at Newburn, told Locke of his prosperity, of Robert educated in the best schools and then “at college in Edinburgh,” and proposed to call at Barnsley in the course of a few weeks, when he would be passing through it. The visit was paid, and amid talk of past struggles and present prosperity, the prospects of the lad Joseph were naturally discussed. “Send him to me,” said Stephenson; the proposal was accepted, and young Locke's position was made. During the years with his father he had learnt something of the virtue of obedience, and henceforward his career was one of steady work, meeting with its fit reward. He was bound to a three years' apprenticeship; no premium was required, and no salary was to be paid, and upon these terms, at the end of 1823, Joseph Locke entered the engine-factory at Newcastle.

When Mr. Devey has safely landed his hero at Newcastle, he takes the opportunity of making a digression of some forty pages. With rapid glance he surveys the history of roads and road-making from the time of the Roman empire, whose Decline and Fall he expresses under the striking phrase, “the Capitol, tired of her baby dominion, let her schoolboy subjects go;” and then, from an equal height, he tells, under the title “Prometheus,” the story of the introduction of steam-power. Trevithick's career (Mr. Devey always spells the name Trevethick) is faithfully told after Mr. Smiles, and the narrator exhibits the same defects that we pointed out three weeks since on reviewing the “*Life of Robert Stephenson*.” The following peroration is, however, undoubtedly original:—

“Just on the eve of reaping all the benefit of his design, he turned away from his splendid creation like a child tired of its plaything, entirely indifferent to the grand vista of fame and fortune it opened out to him, and only anxious for something new. Is it Fate that impels some minds to shun, as zealously as others to court, and thereby achieve success? Trevethick, turning away from the locomotive at this critical juncture, can only be paralleled by De Quincey turning away from Oxford, or Attila from Rome!”

In 1823, as we have said, Locke went to Newcastle, and gave himself to hard work, but we have evidence that his old independent spirit was not destroyed. We are told by Mr. Smiles, that in 1824 George Stephenson presided at a meeting in Newcastle held for the purpose of establishing a mechanics' institute, and amongst the speakers who addressed the meeting was his pupil, the lad of nineteen. Locke did not use the institute thus established as a plaything; during his stay at Newcastle he added, to close attention at the workshop, hard study of the mathematical theory of mechanics. From Newcastle he passed to help Stephenson in the construction of the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, and in 1826 we find him engaged at Chat Moss. For a time he was detached from this work to superintend the making of a short line of six miles from Canterbury to Whitstable, but he returned to the Manchester Railway before its completion. When the great contest between fixed and locomotive engines arose, he and Robert Stephenson put forth a pamphlet, embodying George Stephenson's arguments, and his fellow-labourer afterwards confessed that Locke, who was “a very flowery writer,” was the editor of the pamphlet, and put it into shape. The contest was, however, most effectually settled by the construction of the *Rocket*, and when the line was opened, in 1830, Locke had the honour of driving that famous locomotive. As its driver he was, by great mischance, the unhappy instrument of Mr. Huskisson's death.

Although the connection between Locke and Stephenson lasted nearly five years longer, differences arose from time to time, which at last became irremovable. Mr. Devey asserts that Locke had corrected some of Stephenson's mistakes, and had saved him from others; and accordingly when the Grand Junction Act was passed in 1833, and Stephenson had to make the appointments connected with it, Locke expected much which Stephenson, who was possibly unconscious of his assistant's value, was not inclined to give. It would be, perhaps, impossible to determine the merits of the squabble, but an indifferent spectator cannot but distrust a man who is never, in his own estimation, sufficiently appreciated: we remember Locke's boyish resentments when we read the complaints of his maturer years. For a time Locke and Stephenson acted as joint engineers, but in 1835 Stephenson

* The Life of Joseph Locke, Civil Engineer, M.P., F.R.S., &c., &c. By Joseph Devey. London: Richard Bentley. 1862.

withdrew from the Grand Junction Railway, Locke was made engineer-in-chief, and henceforth their careers were dis severed. The year before this, Locke had married Miss McCreery, daughter of Mr. John McCreery, printer and poet, whose works, to us entirely unknown, Mr. Devey says, ought to be in the British Poets. The marriage is said to have stimulated afresh an energy which had shown some symptoms of flagging, but it may be questioned whether a little rest had not been wiser. It is impossible not to connect the early deaths of Locke, Stephenson, Brunel, and Errington with the overwork they all went through. In the course of the next ten years Locke was engineer of the London and South Western, then called the Southampton Railway; the Manchester and Sheffield, including the tunnel near Penistone, which alone occupied six years; the Preston and Lancaster; the Lancaster and Carlisle; the Caledonian; the Paris and Rouen; besides other railways in England, Scotland, and France. In the construction of the Lancaster and Carlisle he had to fight a rival scheme propounded by Stephenson. Locke's line passed over Shap Fell at a height of 600 feet, and Stephenson, to avoid the gradients this involved, proposed a coast line running across Morecambe Bay, and reclaiming part of the Lancaster sands. Both lines are now constructed, but the battle at the time was long and severe; even women were, in Mr. Devey's barbarous language, "exploited upon the occasion." It was asserted that the towns on the coast possessed higher samples of female beauty than the towns on the more direct route, and inferred from thence (*sic*) a lucrative source of income from the visits of prodigal bachelors, who would make use of the railway to hunt up the quarters of their Delias and Sacheressas (*sic*). This contest between steep gradients and circuitous routes was often revived, and perhaps Locke's most distinguishing characteristic as an engineer was his determined preference for the former. The greater cheapness of construction of a railway with steep gradients has, perhaps, unduly recommended them to shareholders, but it is evident that the question of cheapness cannot be determined without an accurate comparison of the working expenses of level and undulating lines.

The Paris and Rouen Railway was followed by other railways in the north-west of France,—the Paris, Caen, and Cherbourg, and Nantes and Cherbourg, all of which were subsequently amalgamated with the Havre, Rouen, and Dieppe lines as the Compagnie de l'Ouest. Over the Cherbourg railways Mr. Devey becomes pathetically eloquent: he recalls the associations of Caen and Bayeux, St. Lo and Lisieux, which last, he tells us, was "pillaged and burnt alternately by Normans and by Britons some eight or ten centuries ago," a statement of doubtful meaning and correctness; but he is most earnest over the inauguration at Cherbourg. The Imperial and Royal personages, the salutes, the flags, the bishop blessing the engines, are described with infinite unction; and, last of all, "the assembly graced by the presence of the English ambassador and the Count and Countess of Walewski, when the Emperor conferred on Mr. Locke the Cross of Officer of the Legion of Honour."

Long before this Mr. Locke had been returned to Parliament by Honiton, a place with which he became connected as landowner, and still more as engineer of the Salisbury and Exeter branch of the South-Western Railway,* and which he continued to represent up to his death. Mr. Devey gives us, *more suo*, a history of this little borough, the length of which is not more acceptable from the suspicion of its accuracy which we cannot but entertain; a rebellion in the reign of Edward III., which he mentions, seems wholly incredible. This, however, is a trifle, compared with the offensive way in which Mr. Devey describes the relations between Locke and his constituents. The engineer was, if we may believe his biographer, habitually guilty of affectation and insincerity. He humoured the weakness of the electors of Honiton; in the season of the Papal aggression, he did not attempt to reason with the prevalent insanity; "he took it for granted that the attempt of the Vatican to re-adjust the frontiers of the old dioceses, which it had mapped out some centuries ago, was as atrocious and as diabolical an interference with English laws and usages as any Clapham old lady could make out." All this the biographer regards with evident approval, just as he tells us a little later that Locke condescended to humour the Sabbatarian prejudices of Scotch directors whilst he was their engineer, denouncing it afterwards when he got into the House; but we may refrain from imputing to Locke the cynicism which Mr. Devey approves.

Mr. Locke's action in Parliament on the Sunday question is evidently looked upon by Mr. Devey as one of the most important parts of his life; thirty pages, or more than a twelfth of the biography, are occupied by it, nine of which contain verbatim extracts from a speech he made on the subject, the greater part of the remainder being devoted to a lofty theological argument by the biographer himself, who candidly tells us that "the principle involved in the Sunday question, though it has filled tomes, may be disposed of in a few sentences." We do not, however, look on theology as Mr. Locke's strong point, and we are more concerned in his conduct when the estimates came on: in this he showed his activity by opposing the Netley Hospital, the Scotch ordnance maps on the 25-inch scale, and the Finsbury Park. These great achievements entitled him, in Mr. Devey's opinion, to the post of Commissioner of Works, and indeed he says that, when Mr. Cowper was appointed, "the cynical muttered something about Burke and the back benches, and wanted to know about Locke's quarterings."

A prospect of fairer happiness appeared to be before Locke as a private member. The possessor of an ample fortune, he was no longer required to work hard, yet he retained the honourable and pleasant post of consulting engineer of many foremost companies. On the death of Robert Stephenson he was elected as the head of his profession, President of the Institute of Civil Engineers. From Parliament he passed, at the end of the season, to the Continent, or to his shooting-box in Annandale. His labours were sufficient to interest and excite him, and to give an additional zest to the moors of the Lowlands. But suddenly, in the very high tide of prosperity, he was stricken down. In September, 1860, he was in Annandale, and on Sunday, the 12th, was in excellent health; next day he had a severe attack of *Iliac Passion*, and before the next morning he was dead.

With Locke departed almost the last of the men of genius to whom we owe the introduction of railways. Rapidly they have passed, one by one, away, but they have left works which will long preserve their memories. It

should be our care to hand down to succeeding generations something more than their names, and we must again express our regret that Mr. Devey has been so little successful in his work. Of Locke's physical appearance he gives us no description, and of his character we must make a picture for ourselves from scattered hints and details;—a man of loud, eager, joyous temperament, of adequate self-assertion and impatient of restraint, but withal cautious in action, and careful to compare means with ends; lacking Stephenson's unconscious strength, but secure from the extravagances of Brunel's daring,—such is our image of Locke.

AGRICULTURE IN BELGIUM.*

THOUGH the grand times of Flemish commerce have passed, and the merchant fleets of Europe no longer jostle one another in the waters of the Scheldt, Belgium has by no means sunk into dishonoured inactivity. Her separation from Holland lost her many important commercial advantages, and inflicted, for a time, a severe blow upon her trade; but the resources of her soil and the laborious habits of her population are such that, specially preserved as she is from the calamities of war, she is certain always to play an important part among the trading members of the European community. To England she is especially valuable. Year by year the goodly crops of her fields, the poultry of her homesteads, the vegetables of her trim gardens, and the butter of her spotless dairies, are transported in increasing quantities to our shores, and help to swell the enormous supplies which London, like an overgrown monster, requires for its sustenance. One year she sent us, amongst other things, no less than a million and a half of eggs, about £500,000 worth of butter, and £160,000 worth of fruit and vegetables, besides flax, and colza, and the celebrated "Ostend rabbit," in quantities which probably defy all calculation. Belgian agriculture is therefore a matter in which Londoners feel a selfish interest, and Mr. Burn's entertaining little book gives a lively sketch of the several branches of it, with which a series of visits has rendered him familiar, and about which his agricultural experience enables him to judge with discrimination, and to speak with authority.

Agriculture in Belgium has had many difficulties against which to contend. The soil has been redeemed from absolute sterility only by the unremitting toil of generations and the profuse employment of every species of manure. In many parts of the country even now there may be seen sandy tracts with which the cultivator has not dared to grapple, but which undoubtedly represent the original condition of the entire region. Mr. Burn gives a curious account of the method in which the inundated districts have gradually been reclaimed. The whole coast of Belgium is subject to continued changes, the sea in some places retreating, and leaving large marshy plains,—in other places making inroads upon the land, and requiring, as at Ostend, to be dammed out with a sea-wall. This is produced by the action of the streams, which deposit mud and vegetable matter at their mouths, until at last a bank is formed, and the sea, except at high tides, excluded; the land in this stage is called *schorres*, and as it gradually becomes enriched by marine plants, sea-weed, shells and fish, and the mire brought in by occasional flooding, it richly rewards the trouble spent in completely enclosing it, and may be cropped without manure for successive years without diminishing its fertility. One such region around Ostend was reclaimed by orders of Napoleon at the beginning of the century, and has proved enormously profitable. Analogous processes have been pursued in other parts of the country, where different difficulties presented themselves. For the observation of these and of the several peculiarities of husbandry which they necessitate, the country has been divided by a native authority into several distinct regions; the first is the "sandy soil zone," in which the Flemish system is to be seen in its greatest purity: this extends from the north of the province of Brabant to Antwerp, and includes East and West Flanders and the Pays de Waes. The next is that of the strong clay lands, and it is in them that Courtrai is situated. The third is that of the alluvial or "polder" lands, extending along the coast of the North Sea, often below the tide-level, and only preserved from inundation by dams and sea dykes. The fourth is the Pays Boisé, extending along the polder lands from Moerbeke to L'Ecluse, thickly studded with forests, and presenting a curious contrast to the treeless region upon which it borders. In each of them the traveller will find features of scenery and customs of the country peculiar to itself. If, for instance, he walks round the ramparts at Bruges, or clammers, ambitious of a wider range, to the top of its famous belfry, he will look down upon a country as flat as a bowling-green, undiversified by hedges, and picturesque only after a quiet and domestic fashion. "Fields clothed in the richest verdure, variegated with the golden glories of the flowering colza, or rich with the blossoms of the many fruit-trees which abound in the neighbourhood: trees massed in thick and leafy clumps, or drawn out into the most magnificent avenues, some of them miles in length—a human interest added to the scene by the oft-repeated farmhouse and red-tiled roofs,—the brown of the newly-ploughed fields margined with strips of the greenest verdure, or bright with the glow of the colza flower,—the glistening waters of the numerous canals and waterways,—threads of silver in a garment of emerald,—the windmills and the homesteads and huts of the peasantry,"—make up altogether a lively, if not a very romantic scene. Elsewhere the country wears a widely different aspect. In the second division, near Dixmuyde, for instance, the tourist might almost imagine himself in England. "The meadows are of large extent, divided by narrow ditches, bordered by willows; and trees, shading the farmhouses and churchyards, give a finish and novel charm which the fields of West Flanders do not possess."

All this has cost something to achieve. Several enlightened patrons have devoted their fortunes and attention to the cause. Baron Peers, at Oostcamp, has inaugurated a yearly sale of stock, such as is customary among the great breeders in this country, and the estimated improvement of the Belgian cattle within the last few years is not less than ten francs a head. While the author was at Bruges, he had the advantage of visiting Baron Peers' farm, renowned throughout Belgium no less for the courtesy and public-spirited liberality of its proprietor, than for the completeness of its arrangements,

* Mr. Devey says the South-Western spent more than fifteen millions in its struggle for Parliamentary sanction of this undertaking.

* Notes of an Agricultural Tour in Belgium, Holland, and the Rhine. By Robert S. Burn. Longman & Co. 1862.

and for the systematic employment of machinery, hitherto little known to Belgian agriculturists. Population is so abundant, labour consequently so cheap, and the habits of the country so completely in favour of the minute sort of garden husbandry which the human hand can best carry on, that the mechanical devices, by this time familiar to England, have hardly penetrated into the Flemish homestead, and the enormous resources of Belgium, in the way of coal and iron, have not yet been brought to bear upon the land. Baron Peers, however, with laudable zeal, has led the way to an improved order of things. The land over which his farm extends was within a few years all forest, and has, under his management, been gradually brought into cultivation. Wood as fuel has become far less valuable on account of the general use of coal, and the process of converting woodlands into arable fields is now an important branch of Belgium farming. A great stimulus has been given by the introduction of guano, which makes it possible to get a good crop of potatoes or rye off land so converted in the first year.

The original poverty of the soil has necessitated a far more general and more scientific employment of every species of manure than has hitherto been the custom in this country. Under the general title "*engrais*" every sort of fertilizing agent is included, and the land is enriched not only with what must otherwise be waste matter, but with substances expressly manufactured for the purpose. Every farm has its *fumier couvert*, where the most heterogeneous collection is speedily utilized, and the gardens of even the poorest people are provided with a tank, in which liquid manure is collected and prepared. The author gives plans of several buildings ingeniously contrived for the various purposes which this system necessitates, and which, though comparatively new in less starved soils, have been for centuries a matter of course on the sterile Flemish plains. Intimately connected with this is another peculiarity of the country,—the absence of all fallows. Stolen crops, *récoltes dérobées*, are taken between the reaping of one and the sowing of another, and simultaneous cropping, such as the sowing of clover and carrots with flax or corn, is very generally in use. One of the most important branches of Belgian husbandry is the cultivation of flax, for which the district round Courtrai is especially renowned. This crop has, at least from the time of Virgil, been regarded by farmers with a suspicious eye, on account of its exhaustive properties, and the prejudice against it in our own country is so strong as almost to have driven it from the list of English products. The Flemish farmer knows perfectly how to manage it, and is influenced by no such vain alarms. Mr. Burn speaks of the mode of culture pursued with emphatic admiration. The system is, he says, almost unique for the neatness of its contrivances, the assiduous diligence with which it is carried out, and the astonishing success in which it results. The land looks rather like a garden than like a farm, and it is owing to this patient tillage that excellent crops of flax have been from time immemorial raised off a soil which many a British farmer would condemn forthwith as hopelessly sterile. A specified rotation of crops, a careful choice of fitting locality, due preparation of the soil, and frequent changes of the seed employed, have enabled the Belgian farmer to contend successfully against all the disadvantages which Nature has thrown in his way, and to take the lead in the production of one of the most important and remunerative crops. The flax is grown in two ways, sometimes *à la ramée*, that is, trained upon a kind of trellis work of thin sticks, a method in vogue when fineness of fibre is especially desired; or *non ramé*, when it is left in the ordinary way in the field. Some idea of the degree of care and foresight necessary for its culture, may be gathered from the fact that the rotation of crops on land where it is grown frequently extends over a period of eighteen or twenty years. Of scarcely less importance is the growth of colza, very prevalent throughout Flanders, and stimulated of late by the now general demand for the oil, which is extracted from it. Beet-root also and tobacco are raised with great success, and Mr. Burn's volume abounds with details of the methods employed in their cultivation, which give a lively idea of the patience, ingenuity, and resolution of the race, who, thrown by the hand of Nature upon a region half sandy desert and half marine swamp, have succeeded in bringing it to its present pitch of richness and fertility.

One of the most curious chapters of the book is the account of the Reformatory Establishment at Ruysselede, a town on the line between Bruges and Ghent. The Belgians seem to have an especial aptitude for charitable institutions, and the Ruysselede Reformatory is no exception to the general rule of excellence. The spot where it stands was formerly an absolute desert, but labour and manure have already done wonders, and the crops of flax, rye, potatoes, buckwheat, turnips, &c., are all that can be desired:—

"The school," says the author, "was first established in 1848, in virtue of a law passed by the Belgian Government, the object being to maintain and educate boys of the vagrant classes under eighteen years of age, the basis of the work being agriculture. . . . The number of boys admitted the first year was 350; in 1853, the number at the end of the year was 519; at the end of 1855, 526; and at the end of 1857, 577. . . . Young as the pupils are, they are able to do all the work of raising food for the two establishments—for there is a girls' school about two miles distant from that of the boys,—with the exception of the heavy sub-soil ploughing, &c., which are done by hired workmen. For the employment of the pupils during winter, and to teach those who may wish to follow certain trades, schools are established under the direction of practical men, in which are taught carpentry, joinery, smith-work, shoe-making, weaving, tailoring, printing, &c., &c. These are carried so efficiently out that nearly all the work required in the establishment is performed by the boys. . . . The education afforded is of a thoroughly practical character: French and Flemish are taught; writing, arithmetic, music, &c., being given to all. . . . The whole of the district in which the school is established was but very recently covered with wood and furze. Much of the soil is of the most wretchedly poor description,—a pure sand; in fact, presenting, before cultivation is commenced, the aspect of a hopelessly sterile desert. Yet the features of fertility which it will one day possess, when the system of cultivation is generally extended and exemplified in the tiny plots which every now and then greet the traveller as he passes along, in which, alongside of the most sterile soil, he will find crops in the highest state of cultivation."

The number of boys employed rose in a few years from 350 to nearly 600, and the success of their labours may be gauged by an increase in the value of the crops raised, from about 26,000 francs in 1849, to more than 124,000 in 1855. When Mr. Burn visited the establishment the experiment was just

being tried of pumping liquid manure by a high-pressure steam-engine through a congeries of pipes from a central dépôt, over the whole farm; the pipes had been imported from England, and the promoters of Flemish agriculture were eagerly watching the progress of a scheme which, if successful, is likely to produce an important modification in the fertilizing contrivances which are now in use, and which seem to belong to a more primitive state of things than even Belgian imperturbability is likely much longer to endure.

Mr. Burn draws a very pleasing picture of the condition of the peasantry. The farm holdings are, for the most part, smaller than would support life in this country, and the distress of the Belgian poor is known to be at times extremely severe. The author, however, says that his tour through the country left him impressed with a general idea of industry, frugality, and content. The country people's mode of life was simple, their food often little more than bread and onions, but the utter squalor of too many English villages was nowhere to be seen; and only once did the author come across a ragged child; the cottages, however humble, were cheerful with paint and whitewash, furnished with a comfortable stove and flashing with the bright brass utensils, which every Flemish housewife prides herself upon keeping in the most unsullied effulgence. The contrast between such a population and the small tenants of Ireland is a painful one. In the first instance the material condition of both is much the same; but in Belgium marriages are not contracted so early, and consequently the struggle for existence is not so severe; and in the next place, the provident frugality, orderly habits, and determined industry of the Belgian peasant farmer, save him from that constant penury and those terrible occasional vicissitudes which have made Ireland the theatre of so much crime and suffering, and have brought us to consider the petty holdings of the country as the first and most serious obstacle to all improvement.

PROGRESS OF ARCHÆOLOGY.*

ARCHÆOLOGY may certainly be placed among the sciences which have made the greatest advances towards perfection during the last quarter of a century, and the modest, unpretending publication, the title of which we give below, may be looked upon as in some degree an index of it. When, nearly twenty years ago, Mr. Roach Smith commenced this publication, the antiquary had hardly yet established his right to be considered as anything better than a seeker after curiosities,—there was, it is true, a Society of Antiquaries, which, however, was more venerable than useful, and an Archæological Association was just establishing itself, its real claim to support being founded on the circumstance that it proposed to do the work which the Society of Antiquaries left undone. Mr. Roach Smith found little encouragement except among a few zealous friends; as antiquarian books had then no sale he found it necessary to address himself to a small number of subscribers, and a comparison of his first number with his last will show that so little was then doing that he found it even difficult to get together materials. Since that time a great change has taken place; and though the advance in antiquarian taste and knowledge has been rather an unsteady one, and has sometimes, under different influences, leaned unduly in one direction and sometimes another, especially when it became extravagantly ecclesiastical, its general advance and its greatly improved condition cannot be doubted. The Archæological Association and the Archæological Institute have agitated the country and compelled people to become archæologists almost involuntarily; the example of activity displayed by these new bodies drove the Society of Antiquaries into a revolution, though the hopes which were formed from it have been very imperfectly fulfilled; but the still better example of the way in which continental antiquaries treated these subjects taught us here the value of extensive comparison and careful criticism. Finally, and most significantly of all, the British Association, so long obdurate to all its advances, now accepts archæology as a science, and gives it a place in its section E. Publishers, too, begin to find that it has become not an unprofitable science, and it is to be lamented that a publication of such intrinsic value, every number of which presents us with so much new and interesting information, as Mr. Smith's "*Collectanea Antiqua*," and which has now reached its sixth volume, should still be confined to the small number of subscribers for whom it is "printed only." It is not that Mr. Smith himself has been idle, for during the quarter of a century of which we have spoken his antiquarian activity and zeal have become almost proverbial. His "*Antiquities of Richborough*," his reports on the "*Excavations at Lymne and Pevensey*," his still more important "*Illustrations of Roman London*," and various other contributions to the library of the antiquary, are sufficient evidence of this; but the "*Collectanea Antiqua*" is, after all, his most valuable publication, on account of the great number and great variety of subjects on which his experience and power of illustration and explanation are there brought to bear.

The contents of the present number are more than usually interesting, and we may point out one paper as especially deserving of attention. In the preceding volume, Mr. Smith had taken up the subject of Roman pictorial illustrations of domestic and popular life in the provinces, which was suggested to him in a pedestrian visit to the antiquities of the south of France. It is the ancient province of Gaul, indeed, which has furnished his most curious examples. The first of these (in the article in the present number) is a discovery calculated to surprise us, for it seems to show that the wag who, in describing Cæsar's march into Gaul, translated *summa diligentia* by "on the top of a diligence," was not archæologically so much in error as we might suppose. We have here, sculptured on stone in bas-relief, if not exactly a diligence, what we may at all events describe as a Roman omnibus, for it resembles very closely the modern vehicle to which we give that name. Mr. Smith believes it to be the Roman *rheda*, a large and capacious carriage to which the Roman writers contain not unfrequent allusions, but these allusions are only clearly understood by the figure which is here brought to light. No representation of the Roman *rheda* had previously been met with, and, curiously enough, Quintilian speaks of it as an invention which the Romans owed to Gaul (*plurima Gallica valuerunt, ut rheda*), so that it has at last been found in the very country where it was first invented. It is a four-wheeled carriage, drawn by two horses. The body of the carriage is formed exactly

* *Collectanea Antiqua*, Part I., Vol. 6. Etchings of Ancient Remains, illustrative of the Habits, Customs, and History of Past Ages. By Charles Roach Smith. London: Printed for the subscribers only, and not published. 8vo. 1862.

like that of a modern omnibus, with two large square windows at the side, and it carries inside passengers, and also passengers on the roof or top. The latter here consist of, first, the driver, who sits on an advanced seat above the horses; second, a man behind him, seated in a seat resembling that of an ordinary chariot, and looking towards the horses; and, third, another man, who holds in his hand a long-handled axe, and sits on what appears to be intended for a bench, with his back to the horses. This is said to have been found at Vaison, the Vasio of the Romans, then the chief town of the district of the Vocontii, of whom, it may be remarked, there was a detachment employed as troops in Britain, where they have left their name on an altar dedicated by them to the goddesses, or nymphs, of the plains and fields. It is now deposited in the public museum of the town of Avignon. It is certainly rather curious that we should just find the type of the modern omnibus in Roman times, exactly in the same countries in which it first came into use in modern days. The *rheda* was probably, in these provinces, a vehicle on the public roads.

The sculptured stone which has made us acquainted with this curious fact formed one of the sides of a large and noble quadrangular sepulchral monument, the inscription of which is lost, but there can be no doubt that it commemorates a person of rank and distinction, who is probably represented by one of the two persons who sit in the interior, for the four sculptures which covered the four sides of the monument when complete no doubt represented some events of importance in the life of the individual who was buried beneath them. Mr. Roach Smith considers that he was the *flamen*, or chief sacerdotal magistrate of the district, an office which was not unusually joined with the civil magistracy, and which is especially designated by the long-handled axe (*securis*) carried by one of the outside passengers. This high officer is probably represented by one of the inside passengers. Mr. Smith supposes that he was travelling in the *rheda* to superintend some important religious ceremony, which is represented on another sculptured stone, forming the only other side of the monument preserved, and placed beside it in the Museum of Avignon. It is also engraved in the publication we are reviewing. It is a sacrifice in which an ox is the victim, and the man with the *securis* appears in the discharge of his duties. The principal personage of the travelling party appears as the officiating priest in the ceremony.

A fragment of the sculpture of a sepulchral monument at Dijon, the *Divio* of the Romans, represents a part of the interior of the shop of a seller of wine and corn, which no doubt was the trade of the man who was buried under it. It is one of the most interesting pictures of private life in Gaul that can easily be imagined. In the front of the shop is a long high counter, higher than the heads of the customers. At one end is a desk, very much like the desk of a shop of our own times, where the money accounts were kept. At intervals along the counter are fixed large graduated measures, descending into funnels, so that, when the quantity demanded had been poured into the measure, the withdrawal of a stop to the funnel allowed it to run out below. Two customers stand below, one with a wine amphora; which he holds up to the funnel while he is served,—the other, who perhaps holds a sack for corn, though the distinction is not very evident on account of the damaged condition of the stone, waiting till, in his turn, he also is to be served through another measure. Behind the attendants at the counter we see a shelf, on which cups are placed, probably smaller measures, for articles which, in the fragmentary state of the stone, can only be conjectured. Above the desk is the picture of a man's head in a frame, perhaps the sign of the shop.

Mr. Smith promises other monuments of a similar description, the interest and value of which cannot be over-rated. The remaining papers in the present number of the "Collectanea Antiqua" are not less interesting generally, and perhaps more interesting to many English antiquaries. One of them embraces the rather extensive subject in itself of the Roman antiquities of Chester, the *Deva* of the Romans, the head-quarters of the twentieth legion, with an especial reference to the remains of its walls of defence, and to some interesting Roman inscriptions which have lately been discovered, and which add to our knowledge of the extraordinary mixture of peoples who formed the Roman population of Britain. One of the inscriptions is that of an altar dedicated to the *genius loci* by Flavius Longus, military tribune of the twentieth legion, and his son Longinus, a family which came from Samosata, in Syria. It is rather curious that Longinus, the philosopher, the well-known author of the treatise on the "Sublime," is understood to have been a native of Syria; and another philosopher, Lucian, was born at Samosata, which appears to have been a rather literary place. It would be curious if the soldier at Chester should have been a relative of the scholar who shared the fortunes of Zenobia. There were many Syrians settled in Britain under the Romans, and to them, no doubt, we owe the establishment in this country of the worship of the Syrian goddess (the *Dea Syria*, on whom Lucian has written a treatise), of which so many monuments have been found here, especially in the northern and north-western parts of England. Other Chester inscriptions here published are equally interesting. Before we turn from the subject of these inscriptions to the consideration of objects of a different description, we may remark that we think the time is now come when the publication of a complete and well edited collection of the Roman inscriptions found in Britain is absolutely necessary, and we would strongly recommend it to the consideration of the Master of the Rolls. There is only one man whose long course of studies on this special subject has really qualified him for editing such a work in a satisfactory manner, and that, without any doubt, is Mr. Roach Smith.

Another paper in the present number of the "Collectanea Antiqua" is more strictly British, and describes a very large collection of implements of the Roman period, in bronze and iron, but especially the latter, found in a sort of *souterrain* at Hod Hill, in Dorsetshire, in the neighbourhood of a country where the Romans appear to have obtained iron, and worked it in considerable quantity. A fourth article is devoted to a recent discovery in France of a great Roman manufactory of terra-cotta images, with an immense quantity of the manufactured articles, such as gods and goddesses, lares and penates, historical figures, and others, illustrative of popular manners, toys and playthings, &c., in earthenware. Made in Gaul, they belong particularly to the antiquities of that province, but at the same time may be fairly considered as equally illustrative of the manners and history of Britain at the same period. Another article, which completes the number, belongs to a much later period, as it treats of the archaeology of horticulture, chiefly

relating to its practice in the Middle Ages. It is quite unnecessary to add any further remarks to a bill of fare like that which we have thus described. For a book like Mr. Roach Smith's "Collectanea Antiqua," it is quite enough to describe its contents.

PUBLIC HEALTH IN RELATION TO AIR AND WATER.*

EVERY contribution to sanitary science ought to be warmly welcomed by the public, and we congratulate Dr. Gairdner on having produced a most valuable book upon the subject. It is written in so pleasing a style, and is illustrated by so many examples of absorbing interest that we think it cannot fail to affect most beneficially the minds of all who will give it an attentive perusal. In this age of rapidly extending cities it is of the highest importance that the laws which regulate the health and disease of large communities should be investigated and made known as widely as possible. Sanitary science is, to a great extent, a very modern one. It can hardly be said to have been much noticed in this country twenty years ago. Individual diseases had previously been carefully investigated, and in some instances abated; scurvy was well nigh rooted out of the navy by dietetic regulations, and nothing can have proved more beneficial to the mercantile marine than compelling the master to serve out to his crew at regular intervals doses of lime-juice; and the splendid discovery of Jenner had greatly lessened the frightful ravages of small-pox. But, as yet, no one had learned to look on epidemic diseases as the results of removable causes. When disease made its appearance remedies were eagerly sought after, and applied sometimes with success. Cure alone was the object of search, and prevention was scarcely thought of. The discovery of Jenner may be said to be almost the first in preventive medicine. But a revolution in sanitary science began in the agitation which was produced by the great cholera epidemic of 1832. In Dr. Gairdner's opinion, "The report on the sanitary condition of the labouring population of Great Britain, published in 1842, was the true starting point of modern sanitary legislation." This was followed by the appointment of a new Commission on the Health of Towns, which gave in two elaborate reports in 1844 and 1845; and this again was succeeded by the Metropolitan Sanitary Commission, which published its labours in the form of two reports in the years 1847-8. There is a great and an unfair prejudice in the minds of the public against Blue-books; but there is no doubt that, with respect to the subjects upon which they treat, they are the very best sources of information. Those who either want the leisure or the inclination to dive into those we have mentioned, cannot do better than consult Dr. Gairdner's book, in which he has given in a conveniently small compass the substance of these important reports.

There is a class of diseases to which men *subject themselves*, either by over-exertion of the mental or bodily powers, or by an inordinate indulgence of the passions, or by excesses in eating and drinking. In such cases the sufferer is paying the penalty of his own indiscretion. But there is another class to which men are *subjected*, arising from causes which are now proved by sanitary science to be removable and preventible. These can only be eradicated by the common action of the whole community. The isolated action of individuals here and there can produce but little effect. No doubt if every person were well acquainted with what our author calls "the science of public health," that necessary common action would voluntarily exist. If all could be brought to see what are the causes of those frightful diseases which have, from time to time, destroyed so many of the human race, horror of the effects would inspire them to work unceasingly until a normal condition of health existed. It is hard upon those who are willing to do their utmost in advancing the public health, to find themselves thwarted in their endeavours, and to feel themselves liable to diseases whose very source is to be found in the acts of others who are either poor and ignorant, or, as is too frequently the case, greedily selfish. This leads to the important and vexed question, how far Government interference, in matters relating to the public health, is permissible. There probably has never been a time when the health of the people was an object of entire indifference to the Government; but it is only in very recent times that it has attracted the marked attention of the ruling powers. And this is not to be wondered at, for the knowledge which we now possess of the nature of epidemics is a very late discovery. The horrid fear which filled the minds of the people in past times, when smitten with plague or pestilence, led them to hit on the very source of their misery. Their common cry of anguish was, that the wells were poisoned. Modern science has shown that they were right; but, unhappily, they were altogether wrong as to how the poison got into the water. There seems now to be no reasonable doubt, that impurity of air and impurity of water are the sources of all the great scourges that have afflicted mankind. If, in any country, purity of these two great necessities of life could be obtained, the object of sanitary science would be mainly accomplished. Now if this can be done only by the general action of the whole community, and if a large portion of the people will not help, either from ignorance, or, what is worse, neglect of known social duties, there is unquestionably in such a case a justification for the interference of authority. The ignorant must be compelled to benefit themselves. The lowest classes, brought up in habits of uncleanness, and accustomed to wallow in houses unfit for human beings, are so demoralized by the circumstances surrounding them, that they cannot be expected to lend a hand. When a pestilence seizes them, they bemoan their fate; but outward compulsion alone can make them remove accumulated filth. Since the three dreadful visitations of the cholera in 1832, 1848-9, and 1854, much has been done towards preventing them in future. It is certain that the sources of almost all epidemic diseases, and of a great number of chronic diseases also, are "air and water contaminated with the effete products of the human body, or with organic matter in a state of decomposition." Knowing the absolute necessity of pure air and water, every exertion should be made to obtain that purity; that is, to keep the air and water clean. Air and water belong to no man in particular—they belong to all men in common. We have all a right to use them, and no right whatever to abuse them. Dr. Gairdner has, in the fourth chapter of his book, very ably discussed the question of water having become an object of sale. He holds, and we agree with him, that "the moment water becomes a com-

* Public Health in relation to Air and Water. By W. T. Gairdner, M.D. Edinburgh: Edmonston & Douglas. 1862.

modity—an article having a commercial value, in the ordinary sense of the term—we have reasonable grounds for suspecting that the community has culpably and negligently abandoned its rights, to the great danger, if not actual detriment, of the public interest.” We cannot but think that it is the duty of the State to ensure to all the people an ample supply of pure water—to see that the poorest individual is properly supplied. The water companies, controlled by statutes, have discharged their duties tolerably fairly as great commercial concerns; and as the Government has not thought it to be the duty of the State to supply water, we feel that the companies have conferred great benefits upon the large towns. But herein lies one great evil of the present system, that the houses supplied by the companies may have the water turned off from them.

An instance of this is quoted by Dr. Gairdner from the Health of Towns Commission First Report, vol. i., p. 30:—

“In one crowded part of this district (Bethnal-green), I found the poor inhabitants deprived of water altogether, because the owner of the houses had had some quarrel with the water company, and the water company had wholly stopped the supply of water. It is fortunate that air is more accessible than water, and that its supply does not depend on landlords and water companies; but water is as indispensable for many purposes of life as air is for life itself, and its supply ought not to be allowed to depend on the cupidity or caprice of landlords or companies, but ought to be made compulsory on whoever invests his capital in dwelling-houses.”

We hold, then, that in regard to water the community should be its own provider, except in very peculiar circumstances. It is one of those instances where, as in the Post-office and other public departments, the service would be best done by being under the management of one authority, and this authority should be the representatives of the community that is to be supplied. The great sources of the impurities in the air and water are overcrowded dwellings, deficient ventilation, bad drainage, and defective sewerage. The evils of overcrowded dwellings are so great and so appalling that every effort ought to be made to find and apply a remedy. The trustees having charge of the beneficent gift of Mr. Peabody have accepted a duty, on the efficient performance of which greatly depends the improvement of the dwellings of the poor. Whatever they do, can only be done in the nature of an experiment; but if they should succeed to the extent of the means at their disposal, a lesson will be given which the intelligence of the country will not be slow to learn and to act upon. Although it is, perhaps, impossible for the authorities to interfere other than by advice and instruction, with respect to the ventilation of the houses of the poor, it is reasonable to think that they might do so in the workshops of the artisans and in the schools of children. The evidence respecting overcrowded and consequently ill-ventilated workshops, goes to show that the workmen become so faint and so depressed in mind that they fly to the gin-shop to remove the feeling of exhaustion. In this way a large portion of their wages is absorbed, and their families are in consequence stinted of the necessities of life. Surely a public inspector ought to have the power to insist on all workshops being sufficiently roomy and well ventilated. With respect to schools it is a lamentable fact that in the wretched places where the poor have been taught, the children, crowded for two or three hours together in numbers which render the atmosphere most oppressively close, have contracted the deadly seeds of disease. Those schools which have the aid of a Government grant are not of this character, as the grant is made to depend upon the proper construction of the school, and it is properly placed under inspection; but we hold that all schools, whether aided by Government grants or not, ought for the safety of the helpless children to be subject to the inspection of a public officer. The country is now generally alive to the importance of good drainage and sewerage, and the benefits which we shall derive from the great works now in progress will be incalculable. Bad drainage and sewerage are now known to be the main causes of the impurities in water, and to the impurities in water is clearly traced the origin of the cholera. Of all the facts bearing on the history of cholera in London, and on its communication by means of impure water, possibly the most remarkable and convincing were those relating to the epidemic in the neighbourhood of Golden-square in 1854. It was so appalling that it was supposed there might have been some connection between it and the great plague of 1665, as this district was said to be the seat of one of the great burial pits. That theory was completely overthrown by subsequent investigations. In the midst of this district was a pump-well, which had long been a favourite on account of the supposed pure quality of the water. This favourite drinking water had, previous to the epidemic, been in all probability tainted with the materials of sewage in a certain stage of decomposition. Almost everybody around drank of this well, and in almost every house which was supplied from it, were cases of severe diarrhoea or cases of cholera. There were a few houses in the neighbourhood which were exempt from the diseases, and it turned out, on inquiry, that the inhabitants of these houses had not been in the habit of using the pump, or at any rate did not use it at that particular time.

“There were, on the other hand,” says Dr. Gairdner, “several persons outside the ordinary range of supply of this Broad-street pump, among whom cholera had nevertheless been particularly severe; and upon special inquiry, it was found that these persons were so fond of this water, that they actually took the trouble of sending considerable distances out of their way to get it; the result of which was that they, like those who lived within the range of its ordinary supply, were severely, and in a large proportion, affected with cholera. There was a very remarkable instance of a lady who had removed from this district, before the disease had begun to be epidemic, to Hampstead, a healthy suburban district, remarkably free from all epidemic disease, and very lightly visited by cholera. This lady, having acquired a partiality for the water of the Broad-street pump, was in the habit of having it brought out to Hampstead, where both she and her niece drank of it during the Golden-square epidemic, and accordingly both had cholera, there being, however, one other person who drank of it in that house, a servant, who did not suffer from cholera, but had an attack of diarrhoea.”

From this and similar instances we may not unreasonably conclude that the cholera was communicated by means of impure water. Seeing, then, that this impurity arises mainly from defective drainage, the Government have a duty to perform in seeing that no considerable town shall be without a proper system of drainage and sewerage, since it is a necessary condition

for health. The benefit of interference is well illustrated in the case of Liverpool. The praiseworthy efforts of its municipal authorities since 1846 have produced a striking effect on the death-rate of the town. A previously habitual death-rate of 36 in 1,000 of population had been reduced to 29, and latterly as low as 26; and in the year 1860 (which was a very healthy one) as low as 24·2 in 1,000. Dr. Gairdner, maintaining as he does the right of interference and the necessity of inspection, very warmly approves, on the whole, of the recent constitution of the Board of Health in England, acting, as it does, under the Privy Council. The Committee of the Privy Council on Public Health is an authorized medium of communication between aggrieved individuals or communities and their local authorities,—a sort of court of appeal, whose decisions on disputed points are remitted to the local authorities, to be carried out, if possible, after due consideration of all local difficulties. They interfere only by advice. They send down an inspector; they stimulate the local authorities; and if these do not act efficiently, it is then a matter for consideration how far it may become expedient to bring public opinion, or even the authority of Parliament, to bear upon the case. No subject can be of greater importance than the health of the people, and we rejoice to know that it more and more engages the attention of all classes. Dr. Gairdner's instructive book will, we hope, be read by all interested in the subject.

THE ATLAS OF ENGLISH CHURCH MISSIONS.*

THE statistics of missionary societies, and the indirect effect of their operations all over the world, seem to be worth regarding, from a secular and economical point of view. Their aggregate annual revenue amounts to something like half a million sterling. Their double organization, in the first place, for the collection of funds by appealing to the religious philanthropy of this country; and in the next place, for the employment of a thousand trained preachers and teachers among the remotest and the most barbarous nations, deserves some attention as a phenomenon of social science. And taking a wider prospect, if we speculate on the many different agencies that are contributing to multiply, in this age, the European type of social life and of mental culture among the various races of mankind, we may reckon, along with our wide-spread commerce and our emigrant colonization, this peculiar system, by which a class of persons, specially educated for the purpose, are sent out, often far in advance of the most enterprising trader or settler, to open friendly intercourse with the alien and heathen populations of every distant clime. Whatever may be thought of the value of such an institution, as a means for the diffusion of Christianity, it is plainly capable of rendering great service to the temporal welfare of humanity. In this age, the missionaries of evangelical faith, who now, by the vast extent of the British empire, and by the ubiquitous activity of modern travel, find access to regions of immemorial barbarism all over the “globe of sinful continents” and in all the isles of the remotest seas, have a singular opportunity of proving themselves the foremost allies, if not the actual pioneers of social and material improvement. They may also, in case of their happening to possess a competent degree of intellectual culture, furnish valuable data, by observations diligently recorded amid the strange conditions of their dwelling-place, for many conclusions, hitherto imperfectly ascertained, in physical and moral science. Anthropology, in all its branches, might be greatly advanced by the incidental labours of this class of men. It is well thus to remind the missionary and his patrons, that in order to gain credit for the cause in which he is engaged, he should, while keeping in view the spiritual aims of his pious and adventurous calling, show its collateral usefulness, both to those abroad and to those at home, by furthering, here, the progress of accurate knowledge, and there, the comfortable arts of civilized life. In this way Dr. Livingstone, for example, has probably done more to recommend missions to the general public mind, than could have been done by the eloquence of a whole May month in Exeter Hall. One caution, moreover, the missionary needs;—that he must be especially careful to use whatever influence he may gain with the natives so as to aid, and not to hamper, the efforts of our colonial Governors, in their very delicate task of preserving peace between mixed races, and upholding the legal possessions of the settlers, while protecting the natives from lawless spoliation. It is to be feared that some acts of indiscretion, on such occasions as these, have, in more than one quarter of the globe, greatly indisposed the colonists towards the continued presence of missionaries amongst them; and persons officially experienced in colonial government have been known to express an objection to them. But there can be no question that, wherever the missionaries, refraining from factious agitation and intrigue, exert themselves fairly in every useful way to benefit the dusky or the tawny tribes with whom they sojourn, they have an important part to perform, by which the tranquillity and real prosperity of the colony, as well as the condition of the natives, may be much improved. Upon the whole, we think these great associations which, during the last fifty years, have enlisted such an enormous amount of zeal and pecuniary munificence, have not laboured or spent their funds for nought.

The Church Missionary Society, one of whose publications gives us occasion for these remarks, is notoriously supported by the Evangelical portion of the clergy and their disciples, while it is looked upon coldly, if not absolutely decried, by the Sacerdotal or High Church party. Were it not for this circumstance, by which a large part of the voluntary offerings of Churchmen is diverted from its revenue, the superiority of its resources to those of all the great Dissenting Missionary Societies,—the Wesleyan, the “London,” which belongs to the Independents or Congregationalists, and the Baptist Society,—would at once become apparent. As it is, the revenue of the Church Missionary Society for this year, 1862, attains the imposing figure of £139,481, from donations, collections, and subscriptions in England, without reckoning the local provision made by converted congregations and pupils for the support of their own churches, ministers, schools, and teachers. We should like to find, in the reports of some of the Missionary Societies, an exact account of the self-taxation willingly borne by grateful flocks in return for the spiritual benefits conferred upon them. As the Appendix to this Atlas contains the names of six or seven hundred

* The Church Missionary Atlas; Maps of the various missions of the Church Missionary Society; with illustrative letter-press, and a Register of the Society's agents. Third edition. Seeley, Jackson, & Halliday.

gentlemen and ladies who have left home, at various dates since 1804, under the Church Missionary Society's auspices, to practise the calling of an evangelist, we presume that their expatriation, which must involve some hardships, is not made more intolerable by the want of those comforts which in England are purchased with money. It has, in one or two instances, been urged against the disinterestedness of some agents of the other Missionary Societies, that they became proprietors of landed estates, and that they profited by the free-will labour of their people to obtain a good share of colonial wealth. That here and there such persons have been found to take excessive advantage of their position in the rich fallows of an unclaimed land, or even to abuse the simplicity of a docile and ignorant race, is probable enough. We believe, however, that the Church Missions are generally free from this charge. After all, seeing that, by the custom of the oldest churches in Christendom, the independence of their clergy has been secured by large territorial endowments; and seeing that when a Negro, a Maori, or a Fiji congregation have learned to appreciate the value of pastoral services, they may fairly be expected to pay for the maintenance of their own religious instructors, there is no inconsistency in supporting the missionary system by such means. It is better for the civilization and social prosperity of those countries where a native race is undergoing the process of being assimilated to the Europeans, that its foreign clergy should have a stake in the country—that they should be settled heads of families and thriving householders, attached by substantial interests to the soil on which they reside, than that they should be the mere stipendiaries of a London institution, or an order of wandering and preaching friars, bound to poverty, if not to celibacy, and dependent on an ascetic service. These general reflections, however, do not particularly apply, we must repeat, to the English Church Missionary Society, but are rather intended to meet certain prejudices which have sometimes been expressed against the whole system of modern missionary enterprise. That system ought, if prudently arranged, to become in a great measure self-supporting, or at least to result in the foundation of churches able to pay their own expenses, without relying on the continued yearly supply of half a million sterling of English money, which is sorely wanted for objects of Christian charity at home,—where charity, they say, should begin.

The Atlas itself affords but little matter for remark. It will be convenient for many clergymen, and for the committees of local auxiliary societies, to keep this volume by them, for reference at their periodical meetings in advocacy of the claims of the Church Missions. The maps are twenty-three in number, besides a chronological chart or table of statistics, very compactly arranged, showing the financial and numerical increase of the society, its stations, its agencies, and its congregations and schools, ever since it was started, at the very beginning of this century, at first on a very small scale. The largest amount of money it has raised in any single year was £153,484 in the year 1858, but this included the special fund for India, £24,717, which was repeated in the two years that next ensued. The revenue for 1862 we have already stated. The society has 147 stations, all marked distinctly on the separate regional maps; it employs 266 clergymen in orders, of whom 71 are natives, and the rest Europeans; and also 2,414 lay labourers, of whom only 286 are Europeans, chiefly medical men, or printers occupied in publishing translations of the Bible and Prayer-book, besides schoolmasters and schoolmistresses, whose work is most important. Thirty thousand scholars, male and female, with 21,000 "communicants" or church members, represent so far the actual fruits of this costly effort. With regard to the means of making the missions self-supporting, a question we have just adverted to, the table informs us, in round numbers, that £20,000 is the aggregate of funds raised and expended on the spot; but this must be supposed to mean only the contributions in money, which perhaps form a small part of the local income and property of the missions; and further details on this head might have been profitably supplied. The maps themselves are curious; in that of the World, "coloured to show the prevailing religions," we have an extremely comprehensive, though not very accurate, view of the theological hues of mankind. Northern Africa and Eastern Asia are green, for the creed of Islam; all the remainder of those two continents, along with the wilder regions of North and South America, the centre of New Holland, and the Isles of the Pacific and Indian Oceans, are black, with a uniform darkness of heathenism; while Russia, in deep crimson, blushes for the Greek Church, and the Roman Catholic parts of Europe, as well as Mexico, Brazil, and Spanish South America, to say nothing of a little French plot on the Abyssinian coast, wear the livery of the Scarlet Woman. It need scarcely be observed that England,—excepting Ireland, as an Irishman might say,—with most of her colonies, and the United States of America, shine refulgent in the golden tint of sunrise. Philosophers may perhaps demur to some of the notions of human history and ethnology set forth in the "illustrative letter-press" which accompanies this map; and students of Oriental literature may question the propriety of including the Buddhist, Confucian, and Brahminical creeds in the same category with the Fetish-worship of the most degraded savages in Africa or New Guinea. But the Church Missionary Society does not lack the aid of men who are well qualified to distinguish, and to approach in a conciliatory spirit, the manifold diversities of mankind.

THE POST-OFFICE LONDON AND HOME COUNTIES DIRECTORIES.*

Nothing is more commonplace than to say that London is big, and yearly grows bigger; yet there is one observation which may not have distinctly impressed itself on every mind familiar with the positive magnitude of this city. The population statistics of Great Britain show a very singular result in the distribution of its inhabitants, respectively, in the metropolis and in the provinces. In no other country, so far as we are aware, and in no other age, has a tenth of the whole population been collected in one city. The other States of Europe, in spite of their stricter governmental centralization, have nothing like such a proportion of their people collected in their chief place. Paris, for example, a city very much smaller, is the capital of a nation much larger in numbers than our own. Although the British empire has vast

geographical extension, with an immense multitude of Asiatic subjects, London is not, to the remote colonies and dependencies of this kingdom, what Rome under her emperors was to the Roman world, drawing up to the head-quarters of patronage and preferment an increasing crowd of clients and suitors from every distant province. The mere political, judicial, or administrative business derived from India and the colonies forms but a very small item in the mass of affairs that come to be transacted in London. The commercial importance of London as a maritime port, and its manufacturing industry, are, indeed, enormous; yet they form but a portion, and by far the lesser portion, of the trade of the whole country; Liverpool, with the districts of which it is the outlet, added to the other ports of the north of England and Scotland, being in this respect much more important. Beyond, however, these specific causes of the increase of population in London, it results from the great diffusion of wealth among private families, who are thus enabled to fix their residence in the head-quarters of English society. Their incomes, drawn from realized property in every part of the country, and spent in London, at any rate for six or seven months of the year, support a large proportion of the trading and working classes in this city. The size and population of London are, therefore, due to several causes combined, but in a greater degree, perhaps, to the accumulation of private riches throughout England, and the social influences which attract the rich to London as a residence, than to the extent of our political empire. It is all the more remarkable that so large a proportion as three millions out of some thirty millions of the English people should be gathered into the capital and its suburbs,—a phenomenon which, as just now observed, is without precedent in the history of any other nation.

These remarks are suggested by the Post Office London Directory for next year. Along with it may be noticed the Suburban Directory, comprising the metropolitan postal district, twelve miles round London; as well as the "Directory of the Six Home Counties—Middlesex, Surrey, Kent, Essex, Herts, and Sussex," all closely connected with London in their social economy, and by the habits and occupations of their people. Those bathing places, for example, all round the coast from Brighton to Southend,—those villas, quite urban in their style of architecture, which are clustered around every convenient railway station within an hour of town,—those holiday haunts of the Londoner, up and down the Thames, from Hampton or Windsor down to Gravesend,—the Surrey hills and the Weald of Kent, set thick with the mansions of our City men: these testify, no less than the ever-lengthening lines of building that stretch for miles beyond our suburbs, to the fact that London has fairly taken possession of all this corner of England, from the Channel to the German Ocean. If we had leisure to make an analysis of the names in the Home Counties Directory, keeping in view their personal or business connections with London, it might supply ample confirmation of this remark. But on this occasion, it is enough for us to commend once more the enterprise and the diligence with which the publishers of these mighty volumes have performed their annual task. This vast congeries of brick buildings would present a distressing chaos to the unacquainted visitor if he had not the aid of the London Directory, which is, after all, to many strangers here, the most hospitable and the most serviceable friend they can expect to meet. It is really a book of which England may well be proud, as it shows the orderly stability and completeness of our social organization, not less than the stupendous amount of wealth and wealth-producing activity which London represents. As a work of research and accurate record, it is certainly a astonishing performance; and the well-known arrangement of its contents, including the street directory, the classified trades' directory, the official, the court, the parliamentary, the legal, the city, the banking, the postal, and the general directories, has been proved, by experience, the most convenient that could have been devised. The principal features of novelty this year are the lists of vestry clerks, added to those of incumbents and ministers of the different London parishes; and, secondly, the last population returns of every place mentioned in the conveyance directory. We observe that in the trades' directory several new trades, which science or fashion has called into existence, make their appearance for the first time this year; among these are "albumenized paper-making" and "sewing by machinery," which had not before obtained special recognition. The Home Counties Directory is another volume of 2,000 pages, or not very much less bulky than the London Directory itself, with which, as we have said, it is naturally connected, by the daily and hourly intercourse of the inhabitants of London with those of the six neighbouring shires. An excellent map of each of these is prefixed to the directory of its towns and villages. In this, the fifth edition, some useful features have been introduced, such as specifying the hundreds, the poor-law union, and county court district, in which each parish is situated, as well as the diocese, archdeaconry, and rural deanery to which it belongs; the university and college of each beneficed clergyman, the name of each parish clerk, and even that of every steward or farm-bailiff of a landowner's estate.

DIARIES.*

ANOTHER year, bringing for most of us another cycle of weekly and daily engagements, to be fulfilled and recorded in their turn, is ushered in by the publishers of Diaries and Almanacks, with the offer of these useful little handbooks to the private disposal of our own time. Messrs. Letts and Co., whose various contrivances for the methodical inscription of all possible affairs of life are practically adapted to the wants of different classes, descant upon the theory of keeping a diary, in a little essay or advertisement, which prefaces their volume. Their advice is to use the diary "with the utmost familiarity and confidence, reserving it for the writer's eye alone;" to put down everything, not only commissions, appointments, notices, or any other circumstance of promise or expectancy, but even such trivial incidents as the place, and the company, where one takes one's daily meals, and to read over the entries of the day before sleeping at night, or before leaving one's dressing-room next morning, with a view to repair any omission and to resolve upon arrangements for the next day to come. There can be no doubt of the benefits

* Post-office London Directory, 1863. Sixty-fourth Annual Publication. Kelly & Co. Post-office Directory of Essex, Herts, Middlesex, Kent, Surrey, and Sussex. With Maps, engraved expressly for this work. Kelly & Co.

* Letts's Diary and Bills Due Book; with an Almanack, for 1863. Letts, Son, and Co. De la Rue's Red Letter Diary and Improved Memorandum Book, for 1863. Thomas De la Rue and Co. De la Rue's Improved Indelible Diary and Pocket Book. Punch's Pocket-book for 1863: Office, 85, Fleet-street.

to be derived, in many cases, from a strict observance of this rule; and it is especially to be recommended to persons who are at all irregular in their occupations, or variable in their place of residence and habits of life; for those whose existence is more governed by routine may find that the recurrence of daily custom is, of itself, a sufficient aid to the recollection of what concerns them. It need scarcely be observed that, to the commercial man or active professional man, such an instrument of memory as Letts's Diary is quite indispensable; and the almanack portion of it is furnished with a great store of information specially suited to their business needs. The Diary and Memorandum Book of Messrs. De la Rue, which is rather more ornamental, with a tasteful coloured title-page and an astronomical picture in the frontispiece, may be preferred for the use of gentlemen who do not want to refer to the customs' tariff, or list of fairs in the United Kingdom; and they will find, along with the calendar and its usual appendices, every table of dates or catalogue that one is likely to consult for the purposes of ordinary correspondence. The Pocket-books, including a diary for memoranda to be written with the indelible pencil, are beautifully got up, and may serve as a purse or *portemonnaie*. With all this apparatus of record and reference, not less agreeable than convenient in its form, the host of diary-keepers for the next year should be more numerous than ever. Punch's Pocket-book, along with the usual notices of official nomenclature, the list of London bankers, tables of taxation, and prescribed appointments of the sun and moon and tides, which are annexed, by the custom of the almanacs, to the ruled pages for our cash accounts and ephemeral memoranda, contains a fair amount of literary and pictorial fun. The frontispiece is a prospective view, by John Leech, of the seaside fashions of young ladies in the season of 1863; to which are added, in Tenniel's woodcuts, some queer Japanese sketches of the most august scenes and personages known to the British Constitution; whose emblematic lion, worshipped like an idol by the assembled courtiers and ministers of state, is an animal so magnanimous that his dignity will not suffer from this attempt of a loyal caricaturist. As much may likewise be said of our Shakespeare, whose "Othello" is wildly travestied by one of the joking authors of pun and parody in the pages of this comic companion for the coming year.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Titan: a Romance. From the German of Jean Paul Friedrich Richter. Translated by Charles T. Brooks. In 2 vols. Trübner & Co.
The Nest Hunters; or, Adventures in the Indian Archipelago. By W. Dalton. Arthur Hall & Co.
Horse Warrant; a Plain and Comprehensive Guide. By Peter Howden. R. Hardwicke.
Shakespeare Commentaries. By Dr. G. G. Gervinus, Professor at Heidelberg. Translated by F. E. Bunnett. 2 vols. Smith, Elder, & Co.
Hymns for the Church of England. Longmans.

Echoes of the Universe; from the World of Matter and the World of Spirit. By Henry Christmas, M.A. Seventh edition. R. Bentley.
Bacon's Guide to American Politics; or, a Complete View of the Fundamental Principles of the National and State Governments. Sampson Low, Son, and Co.; Bacon & Co.
After Dark. By Wilkie Collins. Illustrated edition. Smith, Elder, & Co.
Niccolo Marini; or, the Mystery Solved. A Tale of Naples Life. In 2 vols. Parker, Son, & Bourn.
Thalatta; or, The Great Commoner. A Political Romance. Parker, Son, & Bourn.

ART AND SCIENCE.

THE MOON.

A DATUM-level on the surface of the moon is at the present moment a desideratum. The mountains, whose altitudes have been carefully measured, are very numerous, but the measures are all, however, subject to this disadvantage—they are referred either to the surrounding plains, or to the interior levels of the craters; and no steps have been taken hitherto to ascertain the altitudes of the plains one above the other, or to refer them to any datum-level, such as on the surface of the earth is afforded by the mean level of the sea; nor is it easy to see how such a process can be effectually brought into operation with respect to the moon. Of the terrestrial surface, the lowest point is clearly the sea-level; and to refer all altitudes on the moon to one level, we must know absolutely the lowest point of the hemisphere presented to our view.

While this is evidently a very difficult matter, and one that must necessarily consume much time, it is not altogether impossible. If we can measure the heights of the mountains above the plains, it is also possible to ascertain the altitudes of the plains above neighbouring or contiguous formations of a similar or nearly similar character, and thus step by step we may be able to make some progress towards the attainment of this object.

In the course of Mr. Birt's observations of the moon's surface, now in the fourth year of their progress, that gentleman has, we are informed, determined relatively a few of these points. The terminator, or boundary between light and darkness on the moon's surface, furnishes the means of determining the differences of the levels of those parts of the surface over which, at any given moment, it passes. If the moon's surface were entirely level, the light would be separated from the darkness by a smooth unbroken line. This we know is not the case. We do find, however, considerable tracts on the moon's surface on which the terminator possesses this character, sometimes interrupted by a group of luminous points or ragged lines projecting into the dark portion, at others by semicircular or semi-elliptical defections of the luminous surface. In the one instance the level surface is broken by high land, in the other by land at a lower level. We are not aware that Mr. Birt has taken any measures for the differences of level that he has noticed, but his records indicate that certain well-known tracts are relatively higher or lower than others.

The *Mare Frigoris* is a long narrow level tract in the northern hemisphere of the moon, extending over 80° of longitude, but nowhere exceeding 10° of latitude. Between it and the *Mare Imbrium*, the largest circular plain, is a range of rugged and mountainous land of variable breadth, the western portion being known as the lunar Alps,—the eastern at present unnamed. The narrowest portion of this tract is just eastward of the fine dark-floored crater *Plato*, and at certain illuminations of the moon's surface, especially at the lunar morning and evening, it is distinctly seen to be raised above the level of the *Mare Frigoris* on the north, and of the *Mare Imbrium* on the south, the crater *Plato* appearing as a large cavity or depression produced in it by subsidence.

South of the magnificent crater *Plato* are the remains of an ancient crater designated *Newton* by the astronomer Schröter, its level being coincident with that of the *Mare Imbrium*. On its southern border stands the fine isolated mountain *Pico*. From the northern boundary of *Newton* the ascent to the south

rim of *Plato* is rapid and abrupt, and in the eastern angle, between *Newton* and *Plato*, is a smooth tract sloping towards the angle, merging into and apparently forming a portion of the *Mare Imbrium*. When the evening terminator* passes over this smooth tract and the *Mare Frigoris*, it is interrupted by the narrow high land between them in such a way that were the high land removed the terminator would pass uninterruptedly over them, thus indicating that they are both at the same level or nearly so. The terminator, as it passes over the *Mare Imbrium*, is more westerly than where it passes over the *Mare Frigoris*; at the same time showing that the *Mare Imbrium* is higher than the *Mare Frigoris*, or the depression between *Plato* and *Newton*.

Westward of the *Mare Imbrium*, and between it and the *Mare Serenitatis*, is situated a level tract on which are some fine craters, *Autolycus*, *Aristillus*, *Theatetus*, and *Cassini*. The southern part of this level plain is known as the *Palus Putredinis*, and is separated from the *Mare Serenitatis* by a low steppe that awaits measurement. This steppe has been observed on four or five occasions under both illuminations, morning and evening. It connects the range of the *Caucasus* with the lunar *Apennines*. When seen under the early morning illumination it appears as a dusky waved stripe between and connecting the two ranges of mountains; it is obscurely indicated on Beer & Madler's map, but very apparent on the moon, its shadow being perfectly perceptible when the sun is but a little above its horizon. Under the evening illumination it is seen as a bright stripe, in consequence of its presenting its inclined surface more directly to the sun's rays. These phenomena not only indicate the inclined surface of the steppe towards the east, but that the general surface of the *Mare Serenitatis* is higher than that of the *Palus Putredinis*.

The surface of the *Mare Serenitatis*, a little over 430 miles in diameter, is more or less smooth and level; it is variegated with gentle undulations or ridges of low hills, while but few craters have been opened upon it. Higher as we have seen than the *Palus Putredinis*, it is lower than the *Mare Tranquillitatis*, and under a suitable morning illumination, a steppe somewhat deeper and longer than that separating the *Mare Serenitatis* from the *Palus Putredinis* can be readily discerned. We have, consequently (Mr. Birt considers), a gradation of level characterizing the three extensive plains, the *Mare Tranquillitatis*, the *Mare Serenitatis*, and the *Palus Putredinis*.

The confirmation of these phenomena may be somewhat difficult. The steps indicating the differences of level are among those interesting objects on the moon's surface that are seen for a short interval only. They require a peculiar illumination by the sun's rays, and to be seen under the best conditions months may elapse before an opportunity may occur, and then the objects require to be carefully looked for, as there is nothing very striking about their appearance. It is true the epoch of visibility may be computed; and this may greatly assist the searcher in laying hold of these fugitive phenomena, and it is to be hoped that, for so important a branch of lunar physics as the determination of the relative levels of the *Maria* and other regions of the moon's surface, this class of objects, viz., those that come into visibility under peculiar circumstances, and are soon lost to view, may receive, at the hands of astronomers, more attention than they have hitherto commanded.

The region on the east of the *Mare Crisium*, an elliptical spot near the N.W. limb or edge of the moon, plainly distinguishable by the naked eye, is very interesting, especially the high land skirting it, in which the bright crater *Proclus* is opened up, and also the remarkable region known as the *Palus Somnii*, which Mr. Webb describes as an unevenly defined, always distinguishable surface, with a peculiar tint, perhaps yellowish brown. This tract—which under a suitable illumination exhibits considerable roughness of surface, being studded with rocks, some attaining the character of mountains, with here and there a few craters opened but upon it—lies at a lower level than the mountainous district S.W. and N.W. of it. Between 16 and 17 days of the moon's age, two well-defined streaks of light may be seen, with a low power, skirting its N.W. and S.W. sides, apparently emanating from the bright crater *Proclus*. Upon applying a higher power, the difference of level comes out unmistakably, the lucid streaks being produced by the slopes from the higher tracts of land towards the lower level of the *Palus Somnii*. That on the N.W. is continuous in its character, while that on the S.W. is broken into several mountains and smaller hills. With the Hartwell equatorial, power 240, four high mountains have been seen forming this slope. The extreme mountain south of *Proclus* terminates the range, and forms the culminating point of the high land skirting the *Mare Crisium* on the S.E. This mountain has been seen standing out as a noble object, and casting a shadow that merged into the dark surface of the *Mare Crisium*. It has been proposed by Mr. Birt, we believe, to designate the range of mountains the "Coxwell Range," and the culminating mountain, "Mount Glashier."

The regions of the moon's surface the relative levels of which have been indicated, as shown above by observation, are isolated and separated from each other. The high land between the *Mare Crisium* and the *Palus Somnii*, rises to a considerable altitude in *Mount Glashier*, both the *Mare* and *Palus* being below it on either side. The relative levels of the *Mare* and *Palus* are, however, at present undetermined, further observations being required to ascertain which is the highest. The relative levels of the next group, the *Mare Tranquillitatis*, *Mare Serenitatis*, and *Palus Putredinis*, have been already indicated, as also those of the third group, the *Mare Imbrium* and the *Mare Frigoris*. Astronomers might find reward for their labours in taking up more energetically this interesting branch of lunar inquiry, which certainly appears capable of yielding at some future period valuable results.

CONTEMPORARY SCIENCE.

SOME recent excellent remarks on the effect of the slowness or promptitude of death upon the comestibleness of flesh, by M. Claude Bernard, show that much light is yet to be philosophically thrown on a very important subject. In all animals in good health and well fed, whatever their food or the class to which they belong—vertebrate or invertebrate—there exists on the tissues (especially of the liver) and in the muscular flesh a substance analogous to vegetable amidon. Nitrogenous matters formed in the alimentation of the food also accompany it in the natural conditions of health, and no matter how vigorous or young the individual, these glycogenous and nitrogenous matters disappear under the influence of maladies or prolonged agony. Under the influence of fever, the glycogene is rapidly destroyed, and it is never met with in cases of spontaneous death; but when the termination of life has been violent or accidental, it is not absent unless the creature has undergone much suffering; a rabbit, for example, must be subjected to five or six hours' agony before all traces of this substance will disappear. Fatigue of

* The terminator is divided into two portions, one of which is seen on the waxing moon as the sun rises on its surface, the other on the waning moon as the sun sets. The morning terminator is seen before the full, the evening terminator after.

the muscles by unusual exertions subject the tissues to great modifications, and they then yield to water much more of the soluble principles than the muscles of animals in a normal state. There are also differences in the rapidity of the modifications of the flesh according to the nature of the animals, their age, the season, and the kind of death. In mammals, death by asphyxia is that which soonest causes the disappearance of the glycogenous matters. These ideas are still but partially developed, but they suffice to show that a scientific explanation will be given of phenomena which practical experience has made known.

At the Chemical Society Mr. F. Field read an interesting note "On the Solvent Power exercised by a solution of Hyposulphite of Soda upon many salts insoluble in water." He found that sulphate of lead was dissolved to a considerable extent in the cold solution, and on boiling was precipitated as sulphide. Iodide of mercury dissolved in the solution to almost any extent, and on boiling was precipitated as the red sulphide. Sulphate of lime was found to be many times more soluble in the hyposulphite solution than in pure water. Hence, the hyposulphite would probably prove useful in preventing sulphate of lime incrustations in steam-boilers.

The last meeting of the Royal Society was rich in valuable communications. First, Professor Huxley had been examining a new species of Glyptodon, a strange fossil armadillo-like animal, and gave an account of it. The specimen has lain for some time at the College of Surgeons' Museum in a very fragmentary condition; but the pieces have lately been very carefully put together by Mr. Waterhouse Hawkins. There are some things in natural history the why and the wherefore of which it is as difficult to conceive as it is of some things in ordinary life; and why the ancient glyptodons should have had such enormously thick and ponderous shields is one of these mysteries, unless it be presumed that Providence designed these shields for the like reason as it is supposed to have made the thick skulls of the glyptodon's congeners,—the mylodon and megatherium,—namely, to protect the creatures against falling trees. But this was a topic on which Professor Huxley did not enter. He pointed out, however, the singular adaptations and modifications of the ordinary vertebrate skeleton to support the enormous defensive plating which this animal was compelled to carry. The specimen itself was about 8 or 10 feet in length without the tail, and its coat of mail weighed several hundredweights. From previous examples, naturalists had no actual knowledge of the pelvis, or vertebral column—portions of the bony frame-work, in which the most interesting modifications might be expected for supporting this heavy carapace, which, unlike the flexible covering of the armadillo, was in the glyptodon formed of polygonal scutes ankylosed together and completely rigid. In the restored specimen, three of the vertebrae of the neck were ankylosed together into a solid bone with articular facets, whilst there was a general ankylosis of the dorsal vertebrae into a kind of tubular bridge, and the sides of the pelvis were developed into enormous buttresses. Various other modifications necessitated to overcome the remarkable difficulties of respiration brought about by these deviations from the normal plan of the vertebrate skeleton, were lucidly pointed out.

Dr. Tyndall followed with further details of those wonderful experiments on Radiant Heat which during the past two or three years he has been so successfully carrying on, and which have created as much interest abroad as they have done at home. The principal portion of his communication was taken up with details of the modifications of his apparatus to meet every objection that had been urged against his former experiments. Experiments repeated under these altered conditions fully corroborated his first enunciations. A third paper, by Mr. Gassiot, of Clapham, was a most valuable contribution towards important advances in the knowledge of Stratified Electrical Discharges. The experiments were made with a water-battery of 3,360 cells, in the application of which a remarkable means of modifying with great precision the resistance to the current was adopted by Mr. Gassiot. The ends of the two conducting wires were placed respectively in one of two tubes of water, which were connected at their bases by a metal wire. The wires being more or less deeply inserted in the tubes, the resistance, as is evident, was correspondent to the depth of water beneath them; and in this way one, two, three, up to thirteen, bars of light could be produced at the will of the operator. After a certain point, the bars flash together, and the light becomes continuous. The experiments could not be shown on the occasion, as the electricity from ordinary batteries would decompose the water, and thus the beauty and practical value of the experiments made by Mr. Gassiot with his unique and powerful water-battery would be unattainable.

The opinions which Professor Goldwin Smith and others have recently advanced as to the utility and value of colonies to the mother country, have been brought under discussion at the Statistical Society, by Mr. Hanwick. For the proper consideration of the new doctrine of Colonial Emancipation, he very rightly deemed it necessary to set out clearly the real characters of the possessions of the British Crown, and the economical results which flow from the existing relations between them; and, as one step in this direction, he passed under review the population statistics. His summary of the general results gives for the British colonies and dependencies an aggregate area of seven millions of square miles, peopled by 145 millions of souls, of whom about three millions inhabit countries north of the Tropics, 139 millions between the Tropics, and the remainder, about two millions, south of the Tropics; of this total population, six millions are whites.

The postage-stamp mania seems to have got entrance into the Numismatic Society; for Mr. Virtue exhibited there some of the notes of the new postage currency of the Federal States of America. Other papers and objects of interest were brought before the meeting; amongst them was an account by Mr. Williams of a collection of Chinese coins belonging to W. H. Black, Esq. It had been formed by a Chinese numismatist, and the method of arrangement was curious. The coins being all perforated were strung on a stout wire, with a loop at one end for suspension, and a padlock at the other to secure the coins. They range in date from about the beginning of the Christian era to the present time; and each coin has a label attached, with the principal part of the inscription and the date upon it. Amongst them are some of most of the emperors of each dynasty—the Yuen dynasty alone being unrepresented. It was stated as remarkable that in three collections of Chinese coins lately examined by Mr. Williams, there were no coins of that dynasty, though in each instance there were both earlier and later coins in the collections.

Mr. Evans gave a detailed account of a hoard of Anglo-Saxon coins discovered during the spring of this year in Ireland. The date of the deposit must have been about the year 960, the coins being of Edward the Elder, Athelstan, Eadmund, Eadred, Eadwig, Eadgar, and Anlaf. The most interesting are those of the latter king, who was descended from the Danish kings of Dublin, and who for a time reigned in Northumberland. The type of his coins which were in this hoard is that with the raven, the sacred standard of the Danes, and with the Saxon legends ANLAF CVNVNC and ADELFERD MINETRI—Anlaf the King, and Athelferd the Minter.

LEARNED SOCIETIES.

LIST OF MEETINGS FOR NEXT WEEK.

MONDAY.

ACTUARIES—12, St. James's-square, at 7 P.M. "Rates of Mortality and Marriage of Europeans and Indians." By Mr. Brown.
LONDON INSTITUTION—Finsbury-circus, at 7 P.M. "Modern Satire." By Shirley Brooks, Esq.

TUESDAY.

ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street, at 3 P.M. "On Air and Water" (juvenile lectures). By Professor Frankland.

THURSDAY.

ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street, at 3 P.M. "On Air and Water" (juvenile lectures). By Professor Frankland.

FRIDAY.

PHILOLOGICAL—Somerset House, at 8 P.M.
LONDON INSTITUTION—Finsbury Circus, at 7 P.M. "Non-Metallic Elements." By Professor Field.

ROYAL ACADEMY—Trafalgar-square, at 8 P.M. "Architecture." By Professor Smirke.

SATURDAY.

ROYAL INSTITUTION—Albemarle-street, at 3 P.M. "On Air and Water" (juvenile lectures). By Professor Frankland.

LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS FOR THE WEEK ENDING
DECEMBER 27, 1862.

- Allen White, the Country Lad. 18mo., cloth, 1s.
Barrington. By Charles Lever. Illustrated. 8vo., cloth, 14s.
Beadle's American Library. Esther; a Story of the Oregon Trail. By Mrs. Stephens. Fcap., sewed, 6d.
Braithwaite's (Drs. W. & J.) Half-yearly Retrospect of Medicine. Vol. 46. July to December, 1862. Fcap., cloth, 6s.
Broad Shadows on Life's Pathway. By the Author of "Doing and Suffering." 7th thousand. Fcap., cloth, 5s.
Brook's (Mrs. Carey) The Rectory and the Manor. Fourth thousand, fcap., cloth, 5s.
Builders' and Contractors' Price Book for 1863. Revised by George Burnell. 12mo., cloth, 4s.
Bullen (E.) and Leake's (S. M.) Precedents of Pleading in Personal Actions in the Superior Courts of Common Law. 2nd edit. Royal 12mo., cloth, 26s.
Burns' (Dr. Jabez). Marriage Gift-Book and Bridal Token. Crown 8vo., cloth, gilt, 5s.
Chambers's Journal. Vol. 18. Royal 8vo., cloth, 4s. 6d.
Cooper's (J. Fenimore) Novels, cheap edition. The Water-witch. Fcap., sewed, 1s.
Cost (The) of a Secret. By the Author of "Agnes Tremorne." 3 Vols. Post 8vo., cloth, 31s. 6d.
Crown (The) of Success; or, Four Heads to Furnish; a Tale. By A. L. O. E. Fcap., cloth, 2s. 6d.
De Porquet's (L. P.) Short and Easy French Readings for Little Folks. 16mo., cloth, 2s. 6d.
Don't Say So; or, You may be Mistaken. 18mo., cloth, 1s.
Few (A) Rambling Remarks on Golf. 16mo., sewed, 6d.
Finlay's (A. L.) Manual of French Pronunciation. 8vo., sewed, 1s.
Glenny's (George) The International Exhibition Remembrancer and Illustrated Forget Me Not. Fcap., sewed, 1s.
Golden Link (The); a Poem Romance. By John Wray Calmer. Fcap., cloth, 5s.
Goldsmith's (Oliver) Life and Times. By John Forster. 4th edition, crown 8vo., cloth, 7s. 6d.
Gospel (The) in Madagascar; a Brief Account of the English Mission. By the Author of "The Life of the Rev. W. B. Johnson." Fcap., cloth, 3s. 6d.
Hallam's (Arthur Henry) Remains, in Verse and Prose, with Preface and Memoir. Fcap., cloth, 7s. 6d.
How to Speak in Public. 16mo., cloth limp, 1s.
Kingston's (W. H. G.) Boy's Pleasure-Book, illustrated. 16mo., cloth, gilt, 5s.
Lectures delivered before the Dublin Young Men's Christian Association during the year 1862. Crown 8vo., cloth, 4s.
Lindley's (Nathaniel) Treatise on the Law of Partnership. 2 Vols. with Supplement. Royal 8vo., cloth, 63s.
—ditto, the Supplement separately. Royal 8vo., cloth, 16s.
London and Provincial Medical Directory for 1863. 8vo., cloth, 12s. 6d.
London Society; an Illustrated Magazine of Light and Amusing Literature. Vol. 2, 8vo., cloth, 9s. 6d.
Madagascar; its Mission and its Martyrs. Fcap., cloth, 1s. 6d.
Marryat's Novels. Cheap Edition. Perceval Keene. Fcap., sewed, 1s.
Moore's (Thos.) Poetical Works. "Red line edition." Illustrated. Crown 8vo., 7s. 6d., cloth, extra gilt.
- Neale. Lays of the Eastern Church. Translated by the Rev. J. M. Neal. 2nd edition, 32mo., cloth, 2s. 6d.
Niccolo Marini; or, The Mystery Solved. A Tale of Naples Life. 2 Vols. Post 8vo., cloth, 16s.
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